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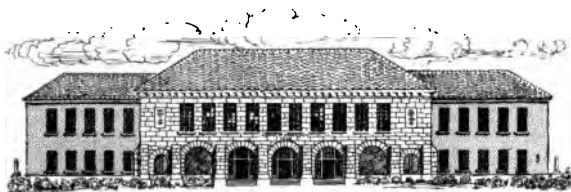
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THE
ENGLISH LANGUAGE
AND ITS
GRAMMAR

IRENE M. MEAD



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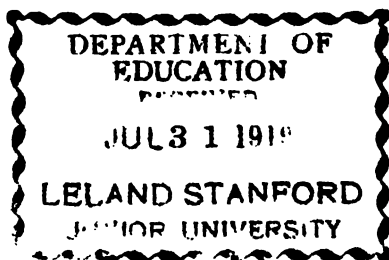
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THE
ENGLISH LANGUAGE
AND
ITS GRAMMAR

BY
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PREFACE.

GRAMMAR is the explanation and justification of the use of words by a race, as its language has been developed in the process of change and expansion. The science of grammar is an analysis of the origin and results of this process. It gives authority to rules of expression, and tends to render permanent the underlying principles of the language.

The aim of this book is to supply a want which teachers of advanced study of the English tongue have long felt, and which has not been met by any school text-book yet produced. There are many good grammars which provide for an earlier stage of instruction, and which give minute, formal, and mechanical definitions and rules. Few school books in this department attempt the broader and more logical development of the language.

Teachers of higher classes, therefore, especially if their students are to become teachers themselves, demand a text-book on a scientific basis, with emphasis on the inseparable connection between grammar and psychology. They ask for a logical treatise of language, which, together with its definitions and rules, shall stimulate the reflective powers, and give a knowledge of English which shall produce masters in the art of composition. The well-furnished writer, speaker, or teacher of English style must be able to trust his own trained judgment in the use of words and the formation of sentences. In

other words, independent thought and original expression go hand in hand. This is the key-note of this work.

In view of such a necessity in high and normal schools, the author combines in this book the history and derivation of English forms of speech with an analysis of the language and its functions. If the technical terms (which are employed because only by them can the science of language be presented) are mastered in the beginning, the student will find no difficulty in following the author's method to the end. It will be easy to trace the logical consistency of the language with itself, and the harmony of its development, which together give our glorious English tongue its expansive and expressive power. It will also be apparent how this language has been able to subordinate all the accidents of an increasing vocabulary to the normal functions of a generous and flexible continuity of life.

While this book is especially designed for normal and training schools and teacher-training classes in high schools, it is hoped that it will be found valuable as a means of self-help to large numbers of teachers who are striving to secure a better preparation for their work.

It is thought that it is also well adapted for use in the summer schools which are now so prominent a feature of the educational work of the country.

Throughout the work, the author has adhered closely to the terminology of Professor W. D. Whitney, and is especially indebted to him and to Professor T. R. Lounsbury for assistance upon historical phases of the subject.

July, 1896.

CONTENTS.

CHAPTER I.		PAGE
GENERAL VIEW OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE	9	
CHAPTER II.		
FUNDAMENTAL PRINCIPLES UPON WHICH THE STUDY OF THE SENTENCE IS BASED	16	
CHAPTER III.		
THE SENTENCE AND ITS ELEMENTS	20	
CHAPTER IV.		
THE CLASSIFICATIONS OF THE SENTENCE	30	
CHAPTER V.		
INFLECTION AND DERIVATION	48	
CHAPTER VI.		
THE NOUN	53	
CHAPTER VII.		
THE PRONOUN	77	
CHAPTER VIII.		
THE ADJECTIVE	103	
CHAPTER IX.		
THE VERB	119	
CHAPTER X.		
THE ADVERB	168	

	PAGE
CHAPTER XI.	
THE PREPOSITION	179
CHAPTER XII.	
THE CONJUNCTION	185
CHAPTER XIII.	
THE INTERJECTION	198
CHAPTER XIV.	
VERBALS — INFINITIVES AND PARTICIPLES	202
CHAPTER XV.	
THE CONSTRUCTIONS OF THE SENTENCE	221
CHAPTER XVI.	
THE DIAGRAM	236
CHAPTER XVII.	
CAPITALIZATION AND PUNCTUATION	241

THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE
AND
ITS GRAMMAR.



THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE AND ITS GRAMMAR.

CHAPTER I.

GENERAL VIEW OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE.

1. The English Language. — A language is usually named from the people who originally spoke it, or from the country in which it was developed. Therefore the English language may be defined as that spoken by the people of England, and by all those who speak like them throughout the world.

2. Its Character. — The English is the most composite of languages, being made up of elements from many sources ; and it is necessary to know something of the history of the people who produced it, in order to account for its structure.

3. The Early History of England. — The country which we know as England was unknown to the civilized world until the year 55 B.C., at which date its inhabitants were conquered by the Roman army under Julius Cæsar. This general reported that the island was inhabited by a barbarous people of Celtic race, similar to the earliest known people of France and Spain,

that they were called Britons, and the country Britain. For a time the Romans did little to hold their conquest; but finally camps were fortified, towns were established, and for several hundred years a considerable degree of civilization prevailed under the Roman occupancy. The natives who were not subdued retired to the mountains of the West, and, living by themselves, retained their Celtic speech to such an extent that to-day the Welsh, which is simply a modernized form, is our best example of the ancient Celtic tongue.

4. The Anglo-Saxon Conquest. — During the fourth and fifth centuries a remarkable movement of the barbarous peoples inhabiting northern and eastern Europe occurred. They swept down upon the civilized nations of the South, overturning their governments, mingling with them, and making great changes in their languages and customs. During the early years of the fifth century the Roman soldiers were called home from Britain to defend Rome, leaving the conquered and enervated Britons defenceless. A part of this invading host passed westward, and seized upon Britain, conquered, slaughtered, or drove off the natives, and took possession of the island. These people belonged to the Teutonic branch of the European stock, and consisted of several tribes, the chief being the Angles, Saxons, and Jutes. They came from the region bordering the North Sea, the Angles from Sleswick, the Saxons from Holstein, and the Jutes from Jutland. This conquest was a sheer dispossession of the conquered. Those who remained were enslaved; and Germanic language, customs, and laws were superimposed upon a people too weak to

preserve their own characteristics, or the stamp of the recent Roman civilization. In time the country was named — from the most numerous tribe — Angleland, later England; while the names of two of the tribes were united to designate the language which resulted from their union — the Anglo-Saxon.

5. The Norman Conquest. — The Romans at an early date had conquered the region now called France, and had introduced their language and customs. The language, however, through the influence of time and a thorough mingling with the original Celtic, and with a Teutonic strain earlier introduced by the advent of German tribes called Franks, became greatly modified, and finally was known as the French. Early in the tenth century, a horde of Scandinavians called Northmen penetrated into northern France, settled there, blended with the people, and quickly adopted their language and customs. The name was softened into *Normans*, and their language was known as Norman-French.

In the eleventh century, this new, vigorous, and powerful nation, under their Duke William, conquered the Anglo-Saxons at the battle of Hastings, or Senlac, and the leader was afterward known as William the Conqueror. In this conquest, neither language yielded. The Saxons, though enslaved, persistently preserved their own speech, and the union progressed slowly. It required nearly three hundred years for the two nations to fuse into one which was neither Anglo-Saxon nor French, but English. In 1362 it was ordained that English be the language of the law-courts, thus show-

ing that French was no longer an intelligible language to the mass of the English people.

6. Later History of the English. — A language which is in daily use is called a living language; and like all living things, it grows and decays, and therefore changes. Thus it is possible that a language of an early period may be quite unintelligible to members of the same nation who live in a later period. This is true of the Anglo-Saxon, and even the English of the fourteenth century is exceedingly difficult reading for those of the present day.

It should be understood that the present forms no exception to this law of change. Words are constantly changing in meaning, spelling, and pronunciation; new terms are being added, old ones are becoming obsolete; and it is not improbable that the people of the twenty-fourth century will have as much difficulty in reading our English as we have in reading that of the fourteenth century.

7. Dialects of English. — This constant change in a language gives rise to what are called dialects. The people who live and associate together in one portion of a country develop new or different forms of expression which are not understood by those of other portions, though the body of speech remains the same. The English which the Scotch or Irish speak is not easily understood by a Londoner, and differs in many particulars from that spoken in Yorkshire. The English of Americans is perceptibly different from the standard English spoken in England. Even in our own country we can distinguish between a Southerner and a New

Englander, a Negro and an Irishman. When these differences become so great that the language is understood with difficulty by one who speaks pure English, the modified form is said to be a dialect of English.

8. Standard or Good English. — Good English is merely the form used by educated people — by those who, because of special training, are the best judges of what is good, and of what is unworthy to be preserved. It is the purpose of a grammar, (1) to record the laws or principles which have been found to underlie this correct usage; and (2) to furnish such exercises and illustrations as are designed to correct errors and secure right habits of speech.

9. Definition of Grammar. — From the above statement it is clear that grammar is at once a *science* and an *art*. It is a science in so far as it is a compilation of the facts of the language logically classified and arranged for reference. It is an *art* in so far as it is especially adapted to correct errors, and teach the skillful use of language.

10. Value of the Study of Grammar. — We study grammar primarily as an art, i.e., for the purpose of learning to use good English. We can, perhaps, imagine a person so happily environed that he has never heard incorrect forms, and therefore has acquired the art of grammar through experience. But even such a person would do well to acquaint himself with the science of the subject, since without it he would be uncertain that he had mastered *all* forms; he would be unable to defend his own usages, or to decide between

good and bad forms. Most people, however, have acquired many faulty expressions, and for these the study of the art is essential. Further, we need to study grammar as a *science*, (1) as the quickest means of acquiring the *art*, on the principle that when we know what is right, we shall be more likely to practise it; (2) simply for the sake of the knowledge it furnishes. As reasonable beings, we want to know all the facts that lie so thickly about us. An educated person would be ashamed to be ignorant of the structure of the hills about him, so he studies geology. He wants to understand the structure and functions of the various parts of his own body, though he does not expect to use this knowledge as a physician would, so he studies physiology. In the same way we should be unwilling to be ignorant of the structure and possibilities of our own language, our chief means of communicating with others, even if we had no faults to remedy. Another value of this study lies in the aid which it furnishes in learning other languages. The purpose of all languages is to express thought, and the process of thinking is the same the world over; hence many similar constructions are found in the different languages, and an accurate knowledge of those of our own will greatly facilitate the process of acquiring other languages. Finally, the study of grammar furnishes good mind-training. Facts must be memorized, and their relations must be discovered, so that both memory and reasoning are cultivated. Professor Tyndall thus emphasizes this value:—

“I hold that the proper study of language is an intellectual discipline of the highest kind. The piercing through the involved and inverted sentences of *Para-*

dise Lost, the linking of the verb to its often distant antecedent, of the agent to the object of the transitive verb, of the preposition to the noun or pronoun which it governs; the study of variations in mood and tense, the transformation often necessary to bring out the true grammatical structure of a sentence, — all this was, to my young mind, a discipline of the highest value, and, indeed, a source of unflagging delight.”

CHAPTER II.

**FUNDAMENTAL PRINCIPLES UPON WHICH THE
STUDY OF THE SENTENCE IS BASED.**

11. The Judgment. — The purpose of language is to express thought, and the commonest form of thought (the only one with which grammar concerns itself) is the judgment. The simplest judgment may be defined as a comparison of two ideas, involving a decision as to their relation to each other. Originally the mind receives its ideas through the special senses; as, an idea of “red” through vision, or an idea of “harmony” through hearing. Later the mind, through its own workings, forms new ideas from materials already gained.

12. The Nature of the Ideas Composing the Judgment. — Ideas range from the simplest perceptions up to very complex notions. Among the simpler ones are the ideas of qualities or attributes of objects. We can scarcely analyze our idea of “red” into simpler elements; the only modification or characteristic of it being, perhaps, the idea of *degree*. On the contrary, our ideas of objects themselves are very complex, being made up of simpler perceptions of their attributes; hence, we say, the more attributes we perceive, the better our idea of the object. Our idea of an orange, for instance, is made up of ideas of size, shape, color,

taste, etc.; and a certain number of these must be determined in an object before we can recognize it to be an orange.

13. Relation of Ideas to the Judgment. — Ideas are the *material* of judgment. The mind is constantly comparing pairs of them, and deciding as to the relation existing between them. Of these pairs of ideas, one represents some object either in the realm of matter or of mind, and may be called the *subject of thought*; the other is commonly of the nature of an attribute, though it may be a general notion, including a group of attributes. The judging power of the mind couples these together, affirming or denying the attribute to the subject of thought, or identifying the subject-idea with the class represented by the second term, thus fixing the relation between them.

14. The Analysis of the Judgment. — The essential elements of every judgment are three: —

1. An idea representing the subject of thought.
2. An attributive or identifying idea.
3. A copula or relation element.

15. Modes of Expressing Ideas. — Ideas may be expressed by symbols, called *words*, or by groups of these, called *phrases*.

16. Words. — Ideas may be grouped into two great classes, those which represent *things*, and those which represent *attributes* of things; i.e., into substantive ideas, and attributive ideas. But, as has been shown, the mind in thinking detects relations existing between these ideas, hence symbols of relationship are needed.

18 THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE AND ITS GRAMMAR.

A word, then, is a sign, oral or written, of an idea, or of a relation, and words may be logically classified as follows.

17. Logical Classification of Words.

1. Substantive words represent a thing as an existence, whether in the physical or spiritual world, — desk, arm, God, beauty.
2. Attributive words represent qualities, actions, conditions, or limitations of objects, — large, goes, sick, two. Attributes have, of course, no existence apart from the objects to which they belong, and attributive words are therefore used only in close connection with substantive words.
3. Relation words represent relations existing between ideas, — of, and, if. Alone, they have little significance, their attributes being very general.
4. Words including both an idea and a relation, — The boy *who* (if he) studies will improve. I will get it *when* I come = I will come *then* and I will get it.

18. The Relation Between Ideas may be one of equality, showing them to be equally important in the expression of the thought, — *John* and *Mary* studied together; or one of inequality, showing that one of the ideas is reduced to a mere modifier or limiter of the other, — the friend *of my friend* is my friend. The first is a *coördinate*, the second a *subordinate*, relation, the modifier being the subordinate term.

19. Relations Between Ideas are shown in three ways: —

1. By position of the words, — I saw the *child*.

2. By a change in the form of the subordinate word, —
The *child's* hat was lost.
3. By relation words, — The hat *of the child* was found.

20. Phrases. — A phrase is a group of words not containing a subject and predicate, expressing a *single* though a *complex* idea. The commonest kind of phrase includes an idea and the relation it is to bear to something else, —

Ex. — Of the child.

Most substantive words imply a greater or less number of attributes, since an object is composed of many attributes. The word *apple* suggests vaguely taste, color, size, etc.; but the idea becomes much more definite (and at the same time more complex) by the addition of specific attributive words, — a *sweet, red apple, large as an orange*. Yet the unit remains — *one* idea. Phrases vary greatly as to composition and use. Their classifications will be given later.

CHAPTER III.

THE SENTENCE AND ITS ELEMENTS.

21. The Sentence. — The full expression of a judgment in words is called a sentence.

22. The Essential Elements of the Sentence. — The sentence, being but a sign or indication of the judgment, must, of course, contain all the elements of the judgment. The portion which contains the subject-idea, is properly called the *subject of the sentence*. It is necessarily substantive in nature, since it *names* the subject-idea. The two remaining elements of the judgment, the copula and the attributive idea, are included in what is called the predicate. The copula may be expressed in a word which is always a form of “be,” and the attribute in a separate descriptive word, — Snow is white; or the two elements may be included in a single symbol, — Snow falls; or lastly, the copula and a *part* of the attribute may be included in one symbol, the remaining and chief attribute following in a separate symbol, — She *feels* (is *feeling*) better.

23. Two Instead of Three Parts in the Sentence. — One would naturally expect the sentence to correspond as to number of parts with the judgment which it expresses; but since we commonly find the copula and attribute combined in one symbol, as, The horse *runs*

(is *running*), it is convenient to include these two offices under the term predicate, and so to divide the sentence into two parts only.

24. The Bare Subject. — The fewest words which, without help, express the subject of thought, constitute the bare subject of the sentence. It usually consists of a single substantive word.

25. The Bare Predicate. — The fewest words required to express the assertion (copula) and the *intelligible* attribute of the judgment, constitute the bare predicate. It may be very simple, or very complex, involving the use of many words, — *Horses run*. This child *will make herself a nuisance*.

26. Modifiers. — An element which affects the meaning of another, either by way of description or by limitation of its application, is a modifier. Modifiers which affect the meaning of the subject, or any other noun or pronoun, are called adjective elements. Modifiers which affect the meaning of the predicate or any other attributive element are called adverbial elements.

27. Definition and Classification of Elements. — It will be seen that an element is one of the separate units used in the expression of a judgment. As to importance or rank, it may be:—

1. *Essential*, not to be dispensed with, as subject and predicate.
2. *Subordinate*, a mere modifier, as adjective and adverbial elements.
3. *Independent*. An element not grammatically connected; i.e., by relation word or arbitrary position, is said to be independent, as, *The sun having gone down, we departed*.

22 THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE AND ITS GRAMMAR.

As to form, it may be :—

1. A word, — *A good child loves its home.*
2. A phrase, — *The mother of the child.*
3. A clause, — *What he wants* is not here.

NOTE. — A clause is a statement which has the value of a part of speech in a more comprehensive statement.

As to use, it may be :—

1. Substantive element, — *The good child* works rapidly.
2. Adjective element, — *The good* child.
3. Adverbial element, — *Works rapidly.*

28. The bare subject together with any modifying terms constitute the complete subject, — *Sweet red cherries, large as walnuts,* were found.

29. The bare predicate with all its modifying adjuncts constitute the complete predicate, — *I met my friend at the turn of the road.*

30. The bare subject and bare predicate taken together constitute the base of the sentence, that is, the grammatical foundation which supports all other elements.

31. **The Grammatical Classification of Words.** — All connected speech takes the form of sentences. A sentence may be regarded, then, as *a speech*, the *whole* of speech. The words composing the sentence are the parts, useless until properly related, which go to form the whole, the sentence. Words are thus divided, according to the offices which they fill in the construction of the sentence, into classes called parts of speech.

32. **Parts of Speech.** — Words are used in sentences in eight ways, and are classed accordingly, as Nouns,

Pronouns, Verbs, Adjectives, Adverbs, Conjunctions, Prepositions, Interjections.

33. The Substantive Words include Two Classes :—

1. **NOUNS.** — A noun represents an idea of an object or thing, regarded as an existence. It constitutes the *name* of the object. It may name :—
 - a. A physical object. **Ex.**— Table.
 - b. A part of an object. **Ex.**— Leg.
 - c. A spiritual object, i.e., one conceived through the workings of the mind itself. **Ex.**— Duty, soul.
 - d. A quality or attribute of an object. **Ex.**— Size, beauty.
2. **PRONOUNS.** — A pronoun is a short and convenient substitute for a noun. It is used chiefly :—
 - a. To avoid repetition of a noun. **Ex.**— John saw Mary and she saw him.
 - b. To represent an unknown noun. **Ex.**— Whom did you see ?

34. The Attributive Words include Three Classes :—

1. A Verb asserts an attribute of action, being, or state, of a subject of thought, — runs, exists, sleeps.
2. An Adjective *expresses* without assertion an attribute of quality or condition, or a limitation of a substantive idea, — good, sick, this.
3. An Adverb expresses an attribute or limitation of an attributive idea, as, degree of a quality, and the time, place, manner, etc., of an action. By definition, it will be seen that it may modify any word except a substantive.

Ex. — A very large rose. We walk here, often, slowly.

35. The Relation Words include Two Classes :—

1. The Preposition connects a modifying substantive to the element which it is to modify, showing the relation which it bears, — Come *with* me *to* the woods *for* flowers.

24 THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE AND ITS GRAMMAR.

2. A Conjunction is the only connective of coördinate elements, whether words, phrases, or clauses, and also connects subordinate clauses to principal ones, — You *and* I will go *when* he comes. The Conjunction always shows the relation existing between the elements connected.

Ex. — Birds and bees love summer. We will wait if you will hurry.

36. The Interjection expresses a feeling, not an idea. It is an expression of our emotional nature, does not combine with other words to express *thought*, and hence is regarded as a part of speech chiefly as a matter of convenience.

Ex. — Oh, what a fall was there, my countrymen!

37. The Analysis of the Bare Predicate. — The bare subject is a comparatively simple structure, and needs no further attention at this time. The bare predicate, on the contrary, varies from extreme simplicity to a much involved structure, and therefore requires a careful analysis. It may consist of:—

1. A Complete Verb, i.e., one which expresses in itself the assertion and a clearly determined attribute, — Birds *fly* (are flying). The action is unlimited in its nature. It is performed by the actor without reference to any other object. Verbs which assert such actions are said to be complete because alone they are able to become predicates.
2. An Incomplete Verb, called Transitive, + a determining element called a Direct Object Complement; as, John *draws pictures*. Drawing is an action which (unlike that of flying) is performed by the actor for the purpose of affecting some

object. One could not *draw* without drawing *something*. It is, in fact, the *limited* idea of *drawing pictures* which is asserted, and not the general idea, *drawing*. Our understanding of the exact action asserted depends upon the knowledge of what it is expended upon. *Drawing cart*, for instance, conveys a very different idea, but the difference consists in the change of the limiting element. The older grammarians described this sort of action as one which "passed over" from actor to object, and hence called the verb Transitive. Not all transitive verbs assert action (*have* does not), and in many that do, there is nothing that really "passes over" from actor to object; e.g., I *see* a bird. I *hear* a sound.

All of these verbs assert attributes of so general a character that they require the limitation of the "direct object" when used to express definite ideas.

3. An Incomplete Verb, called Copulative, which asserts and contains a vague attribute, + an attributive element which contains the main attribute of the subject; as, The patient *seems (is seeming) better* to-day.
4. The Copula (which is scarcely a verb, since it contains assertive power only), + an attributive element which contains the entire attribute; as, Our senator *is wise*.
5. A Verb called a Transitive-copulative verb, which is incomplete in two ways: (1) as regards the determining element (direct object); (2) as regards an attributive element of that object, called an Objective Complement; as, She *kept the water hot*.

38. Different Ways in which Verbs may be Incomplete. — The verb is the natural form of predicate, and the basis of its classification is its varying power to become a predicate. If it expresses all that a predicate ought to express, it is a complete verb; if not, it is incomplete. From the above examples we can see that verbs may be incomplete in different ways: "is" and "seems" are incomplete as regards the attribute itself; the one lacks *all*, the other, the principal part of it.

The verb *draws* contains the attribute, but it is so indefinite that we do not understand it until its meaning is limited and determined by its object. The transitive-copulative verb *kept* is incomplete in both of these ways; it resembles the copulatives in that it lacks an attributive element *hot*, and the transitives in that it requires a limiting element *water* of the attribute *keeping* which it *does* express.

39. Verb-Complements. — An element which is added to a verb to enable it to become a predicate is a complement. Complements are of three kinds:—

1. The Attribute Complement completes the meaning of a copula or a copulative verb, and modifies the subject of the verb. It may be: (1) an adjective or adjective phrase; as, Glass is *brittle*. The book is *on the table*. (2) a noun; as, Lead is a metal. He seems a gentleman.

NOTE. — Passive phrases of transitive-copulative verbs regularly take attribute complements.

Ex. — The smallest boy was made umpire.

2. An Object Complement completes the meaning of a transitive verb by limiting its attribute, usually in

the way of naming the object upon which the action ends. Only a noun or equivalent can be used in this way.

Ex.—I ate an apple. They wished to see the play.

3. An Objective Complement completes the meaning of a transitive-copulative verb, and expresses an attribute of that which the direct object names. It commonly expresses a condition or characteristic of that object which is brought about through the action of the verb. Only a few verbs, such as make, keep, call, choose, name, elect, etc., take objective complements. Such verbs as *see*, *hear*, are often, though illogically, included in this class.

Ex.—They called the baby Mary. You make me ashamed of myself.

Only substantives and adjectives are used in this way.

EXERCISE 1.

(Sentences furnishing drill work on the structure of the predicate.)

1. I am angry at him.
2. I feel tired to-night.
3. I feel a pin pricking me.
4. He called his sister his best friend.
5. I feel for you in this affliction.
6. The child seems better.
7. The time was when I could do the work of two men.
8. They named the eldest daughter Elizabeth.
9. The servant appeared suddenly at the door.
10. Your friend appears ill.
11. He will become mayor at the next election.
12. A stranger was chosen leader.
13. Does this fruit taste sweet?
14. Did you taste this fruit?
15. His sister was called his best friend.
16. He is growing taller every day.

28 THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE AND ITS GRAMMAR.

17. The crops are growing finely.
18. They made a stranger the leader of the band.
19. He grows wheat in this field.
20. She looks sorry for me.
21. Mary is here.
22. She kept the water hot.
23. I get a great many books.
24. You get angry very easily.
25. Why do you turn pale?
26. We painted our fence white.
27. Turn the pages quietly.
28. He turned and left the room.
29. They called the baby Mary.
30. I continued the work after my father died.
31. I remained an hour.
32. If you continue faithful, you will be rewarded.
33. They made the boy laugh.
34. After his failure in business, he turned peddler.
35. I remained silent.
36. Feel in your pocket for a dime.
37. The city looks gay.
38. His voice sounds harsh.
39. The pretty child looked gayly at her friends.
40. The bell strikes at eight o'clock.

EXERCISE 2.

Examples for thought analysis.

1. Ripe apples drop about my head.
2. Fortune favors the brave.
3. Brevity is the soul of wit.
4. One man's meat is another man's poison.
5. The stone which the builder rejected has become the head of the corner.
6. The empty vessel makes the greatest sound.
7. To every man, death cometh, soon or late.
Once to every man, comes the moment to decide.
8. James was declared a tyrant and a usurper.
9. Honor is the subject of my story.
10. I know that you are mistaken.
11. What is lost is beyond recall ; what we have, we can protect.

12. A clear conscience is a good pillow.
13. They called him John.
14. I will make myself comfortable here.
15. Afflictions are blessings in disguise.
16. The trot became a gallop soon.
17. One star differeth from another star in glory.
18. The buttercup catches the sun in its chalice.
19. She seemed weary, so we sat down to rest.
20. The little bird sits at his door in the sun.
21. I will make you ruler over many things.
22. Lying lips are an abomination to the Lord.
23. Life is what we make it.
24. Fools who came to scoff remain to pray.
25. "A sensitive plant in a garden grew,
And the young winds fed it with silver dew."

CHAPTER IV.

THE CLASSIFICATION OF THE SENTENCE.

THE MODAL CLASSIFICATION.

He is thoughtful. Is he thoughtful ?
Be thoughtful.

40. The above illustrations show that sentences vary as to arrangement, and consequently as to meaning. The same material, differently arranged, gives rise to different modes or manners of expression.

The classes into which sentences fall, according to the manner of expression, constitute the Modal Classification, which is as follows : —

41. (1) The Declarative Sentence, which states a fact. This is the *typical* sentence because it is the one which expresses the judgment, its elements being in the natural order of thinking ; i.e., the subject precedes the predicate. This is its characteristic. For rhetorical reasons the order of the declarative sentence is sometimes varied, and in such cases the sense must determine the classification.

42. (2) The Interrogative Sentence, which asks a question. An understanding of this sentence depends upon a knowledge of the purpose and nature of a question. We naturally think in judgments, coupling attributes to subjects of thought as fast as the mind decides the relation existing between them. A judg-

ment, however, will be impossible if any of its material is lacking; and a question then becomes necessary, to supply what, if known, would take its proper place in a declarative sentence.

A question may inquire: (1) as to the *truth* of the assertion, showing that the relation of the attribute to the subject is not determined; (2) as to any unknown substantive or attributive element in the statement.

An interrogative sentence which asks after the truth of the assertion has, as its distinct characteristic, the inversion of the subject and assertive part of the predicate, showing the suspension of the judgment, — Is he sick? In this form, both subject and attribute are known; the only question is as to their relation.

NOTE. — In the present and past tenses of most verbs, a verbphrase formed by combining *do*, or *did*, with the root of the principal verb is used in a question, the subject following the auxiliary, — Do you see the bird? — not, See you the bird?

An interrogative sentence which asks after any substantive or attributive element has as its distinct characteristic the use of an interrogative substitute (noun, pronoun, adjective, or adverb), for the unknown element. This indefinite interrogative substitute has the same construction in the interrogative sentence that the unknown element would have in the corresponding declarative sentence; but its *position* is *at* or *near* the beginning of the sentence, since it is also the *sign* of the interrogation.

Ex. — Who did the work? What was the color? Where did you put the book? Whom did you see?

In this kind of sentence, the order may be either natural or inverted.

EXERCISE 3.

In the following questions determine, (1) what kind of an element (subject, object, adjective, adverb) is unknown, and so asked for; (2) what is the class (part of speech) and construction of the interrogative substitute.

Who did it? Who are you? Where did you go? Whom did you see? To whom did you speak? Which book (the large or the small) did you take?

An Alternative Interrogative is a double question, of which the answer affirms one part to the exclusion of the other, or denies both.

Ex. — Did he take the buggy or the carriage? **Ans.** He took the buggy. Or, He took neither the buggy nor the carriage.

Interrogations are sometimes expressed in the declarative form, the voice or punctuation denoting the question. These should be described and disposed of as exceptional forms.

Ex. — And you blame me for this? ,

43. (3) The Imperative Sentence, which commands, entreats, exhorts.

Ex. — Do your work. Help me, please. Be merciful.

The characteristics of this sentence are, that its subject is always *thou* or *you*, and that it is *not* expressed, except occasionally in the grave form, when it is placed *after*, not *before*, the verb.

The reasons for the character and omission of the subject are:—

a. One commands only a present person.

b. The subject, being perfectly understood, needs no expression.

- c. The use of the subject would confound the imperative with a declarative statement in the present tense, second person.

Imperative ideas are sometimes expressed in the declarative form by the use of the verb *shall*. This gives quite as strong an expression as the true imperative, but must be described as declarative in form, and imperative in force.

44. The Exclamative Sentence Excluded from This Classification. — It will be seen that the above classification is based upon peculiarities of *form*, each kind of sentence having its own characteristic. Every sentence in the language will fall into one or other of these classes, according to its arrangement. Many authors have included the exclamative sentence as a fourth class, but without good grounds, since every exclamative sentence must be in form declarative, interrogative, or imperative; and any one of these will become exclamative if freighted with sufficient feeling. The exclamative sentence is a rhetorical distinction, not based upon structure, and therefore not a subject for grammatical study.

Ex. — Declarative in form, exclamative in force: I shall never believe it! Interrogative in form, exclamative in force: What shall I do! Imperative in form, exclamative in force: Obey me instantly!

EXERCISE 4.

Give the modal classification of the following sentences, explaining in each case the characteristics of structure.

1. The mountain ridge against the purple sky stands clear and strong.

2.

O gentle sleep,

Nature's soft nurse, how have I frightened thee ?

34 THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE AND ITS GRAMMAR.

3. Count that day lost, whose low descending sun
 Views by thy hand no worthy action done.
4. Come here and be fed.
5. I know not where His slender islands lift
 Their fronded palms in air.
6. Seest thou that I am calm ?
7. Imitation is the sincerest flattery.
8. Resolve to act honorably in all things.
9. This is not written so carefully as it should be.
10. Give me such things as you have.

THE STRUCTURAL CLASSIFICATION OF THE SENTENCE.

45. Different Structures of Sentences.

1. The Alps, the highest mountains of Europe, are always covered with snow.
2. The Alps are the highest mountains of Europe, and they are always covered with snow.
3. The Alps, which are the highest mountains of Europe, are always covered with snow.

The above sentences express the same thought; but each has a distinct structure, showing that thought may be poured into different moulds, preserving always its triple unity of thought-subject, thought-attribute, and thought-relation.

46. The Structural Classification of Sentences includes the classes into which they fall when we consider the *form* merely; that is, the number and kinds of propositions of which they consist.

47. The Simple Sentence. — Sentence (1) has one subject, — The Alps, the highest mountains of Europe; and one predicate, — are always covered with snow.

A sentence which consists of but *one* subject and *one* predicate is a simple sentence. It may contain —

1. A compound subject : —

Ex. — Fruits and vegetables grow here.

2. A compound predicate : —

Ex. — The fruits and vegetables were planted and gathered by ourselves.

Remember that a compound element is *one element*, a unity; and that a subject, though compound, is still a *single* subject.

48. The Compound Sentence. — Sentence (2) contains two distinct thoughts, —

The Alps are the highest mountains of Europe.

They are always covered with snow.

These two thoughts are mechanically linked together by the conjunction *and*, each keeping its original importance as a thought-product.

A compound sentence is one which expresses two or more distinct independent judgments. It is formed by linking together statements which, if used alone, would be complete sentences.

Ex. — The day is done, and the darkness
 Falls from the wings of Night.

49. The Parts of a Compound Sentence. — The parts of a compound sentence are called independent propositions.

50. An Independent Proposition is a combination of subject and predicate, expressing a full thought. When used alone, it constitutes a simple sentence; when used in connection with other statements, this term is needed as a means of distinction.

51. Relations Existing Between Parts of Compound Sentences. — While the elements of a compound sentence are always independent in *rank*, there should be some logical relation between them to account for their combination. To say, "My father is a Democrat and my mother is a Presbyterian," is to talk nonsense. Although two logical judgments have been expressed, there is no logical connection between them. The sane mind is a logical instrument, and does not think in this way.

The relations into which the mind thinks its judgments are four: —

1. A copulative relation.

Ex. — The sun shines, and all nature smiles.

The mind is sensitive to similarities. The second thought naturally follows the first.

2. An adversative relation.

Ex. — The rain is unpleasant, but we need it.

The mind is sensitive to contrasts. The first thought does not prepare us for the second, which is opposed to it.

3. An alternative relation.

Ex. — The book is lost, or some one has stolen it.

The mind balances two thoughts, the acceptance of but one being possible.

4. A causal relation.

Ex. — The day is dark, for the sun is hidden by the clouds.

The mind is sensitive to relations of cause and effect, of fact and inference or conclusion. It detects (1) a fact, (2) a reason for that fact.

52. It will be noticed that the compound sentence does not perfectly fulfil the definition of a sentence as "The expression of a thought." It is rather the expression of a series of thoughts; but the logical relation existing between the parts really makes of it a unity, though a larger one than is expressed by the simple sentence.

53. Connectives of Compound Sentences.—The connectives of the compound sentence are the various classes of co-ordinating conjunctions. They are named according to the relations expressed by them.

The typical ones are : —

Copulative, — and.

Adversative, — but.

Alternative, — or.

Causal, — therefore.

54. As the character of the sentence depends upon the choice of these co-ordinating conjunctions, it is important to know how to recognize them. The classification of the more rarely used conjunctions, such as likewise, moreover, however, for, hence, may be tested by noting whether they can be replaced by these typical words without change of meaning.

55. The Theory of the Dependent Clause.—It would be quite possible to express all our thoughts in simple sentences, as may be seen by studying the following examples : —

1. A man sneers. He makes enemies.
2. He went. He was in poor health.
3. He wants something. It is not here.

Most people would gather from (1) the thought that “the *sneering* man makes enemies;” from (2) that “*he went because of poor health*;” from (3) that “*a wanted thing* is not here.”

In doing so they would be compressing two thoughts into one, but would be jumping at conclusions for which there is no warrant in the original sentences, for in each case the connective must be mentally supplied.

Let us analyze the thought as thus interpreted.

1. The statement “the man sneers” is construed as an adjective, *sneering*.
2. The statement “he was in poor health” is construed as an adverbial causal element, *because of poor health*.
3. The statement “he wants something” is construed as a substantive element, *a wanted thing*.

Now, the use of proper connectives which would show at the same time the *relation* and the *dependence* of the thoughts would insure the correct understanding of the entire thought.

Ex. 1. The man who (= if he) sneers makes enemies.

2. He went because he was in poor health.

3. What he wants is not here.

In these new statements, “who sneers,” has no value except as an adjective modifier of *man*. “Because he was in poor health,” has no value except as an adverbial modifier of *went*. “What he wants” has no value except as the subject of *is not here*. That is, by the use of certain connectives, these thoughts have been reduced to the power of *single ideas* in other thoughts.

56. Clauses. — A statement which is used as an adjective, adverbial, or substantive element in another statement is called a dependent clause. It contains a thought which has been reduced to the power of an idea. The connective, by indicating its fragmentary character and its attachment, shows whether it is adjective, adverbial, or substantive in use.

57. The Complex Sentence. — A sentence consisting of an independent statement, which has as one or more of its elements a clause, is called a complex sentence.

58. Significance of the Name. — The word *complex* means “woven together.” The propositions of a complex sentence are so thoroughly woven together that the thought is injured or destroyed if they are separated.

59. The Logical Analysis of the Complex Sentence is precisely that of the simple sentence, as will be seen by analyzing the above examples: —

1. The Thought-Subject: —

- a. The man who sneers.
- b. He.
- c. What he wants.

2. The Thought-Attribute: —

- a. Making enemies.
- b. Going because he was in poor health.
- c. Here.

3. The Thought-Relation: —

- a. Is.
- b. Was.
- c. Is not.

60. Compound and Complex Sentences Compared. —

The compound sentence is a loose, external, mechanical connection of independent propositions, the logical relation of the parts making the unity which enables us to classify it as *a sentence*.

The complex sentence is the close, vital connection of a dependent to an independent proposition in the relation of a part to the whole.

61. The Complex-Compound Sentence. — When one or more of the independent clauses of a compound sentence contains as an element a dependent clause, i.e., is itself *complex*, the entire sentence is called complex-compound.

62. Classification of Dependent Clauses. — According to the office which dependent clauses perform, they are classified as follows: —

1. An Adjective Clause is one which describes or limits a substantive.

Ex. — The boy who understands grammar likes it.

2. An Adverbial Clause is one which limits the attribute expressed in a verb, adjective, or adverb.

Ex. — She lies where first the sunbeams fall.

He improves more rapidly than we could expect.

3. A Substantive Clause is one which does the work of a noun.

Ex. — He wants what you have.

This is what I want.

He traded with what capital he had.

63. The Connectives of Complex Sentences are the subordinating conjunctions: —

1. Conjunctive Pronouns.

Ex. — Who, which, what, that.

2. Conjunctive Adverbs.

Ex. — When, where, how.

3. Conjunctive Adjectives.

Ex. — What, which.

4. Pure Subordinating Conjunctions.

Ex. — That, whether, if.

64. Double Value of Subordinating Connectives. —
The Connectives of complex sentences have usually two distinct values: —

1. An adjective, adverbial, or substantive force in the dependent clause.

Ex. — The child whose hat was lost has found it.

(*Whose* is an adjective limiter of *hat*.)

Ex. — Put it where you found it.

(*Where* is an adverbial limiter of *found*.)

Ex. — People who are busy are happy.

(*Who* is a pronoun, subject of *are busy*.)

2. A connective value: —

a. *Whose* connects an adjective clause to *child*.

b. *Where* connects an adverbial clause to *put*.

c. *Who* connects an adjective clause to *people*.

65. The Connectives of Substantive Clauses. — A clause used as subject, object, or attribute complement, properly speaking, needs no connective. The so-called connectives of substantive clauses would better be called *introductory words*. They constitute the sign that the clause is dependent and substantive.

The clause, *That the earth is spherical*, is stamped, as it were, as a *noun* clause, and we may proceed to use it in any of the usual noun constructions: —

1. That the earth is spherical has been proved.
2. I believe that the earth is spherical.
3. The fact is that the earth is spherical.

The pure substantive conjunctions, *that* and *whether*, have no distinctive uses in the dependent clauses; but certain conjunctive pronouns are also freely used as substantive connectives.

EXERCISE 5.

Turn the following simple sentences into complex sentences, and state the office of the dependent clause.

1. I shall probably return to-morrow.
2. John has a black dog.
3. A rolling stone gathers no moss.
4. That borrowed book has not been returned.
5. I acknowledge my mistake.
6. The wanted thing could not be obtained.
7. The wise man will shun evil.
8. This is the desired thing.
9. Wellington was sure of victory because of the arrival of Blücher.
10. The day turning cold, we made a fire.

EXERCISE 6.

Combine this material into (1) simple, (2) compound, (3) complex sentences: —

1. It is here.
I want it.
2. You persevere.
You will succeed.
3. He is guilty.
This will be made evident.

4. This is a bird.
It has been injured.
5. We desire objects.
We are likely to obtain them.

66. Analysis. — Analysis is the process of separating a sentence into its elements for the purpose of determining their relations.

It is an investigation into (1) the *content* of the sentence, (2) the form of it. The elements are separated to find *what they mean*, then they are *thought together* again to see how the character of the content (the thought) determines the *form*.

67. Order for Analysis : —

1. *The Simple Sentence.*
 - a. Classify the sentence, modally and structurally.
 - b. Give the thought-analysis.
 - c. State the base.
 - d. Give in order of importance the modifiers of subject.
 - e. Analyze the bare predicate.
 - f. Give in order of importance the modifiers of the verb.
 - g. Give in order of importance the modifiers of complement.
 - h. Analyze phrases if so directed.
2. *The Compound Sentence.* — Separate into independent propositions, explaining their logical relation, and analyze one by one, after the order for the simple sentence.
3. *The Complex Sentence.* — Treat clauses as elements, adjective, adverbial, or noun; and analyze precisely like simple sentences.

4. *The Complex-Compound Sentence.* — Separate into independent propositions, explain their logical relation, and analyze the complex clauses according to the order for the complex sentence.

NOTE. — The pupil is now ready to give a general analysis of any sentence, and a very close analysis of its base. He should be required to find in every sentence the three elements of the judgment, and to explain by what grammatical structures these are expressed. He should have abundant practice upon such examples as the following, supplemented, if necessary, by work from other portions of the text.

EXERCISE 7.

Analyze the sentences according to the above *order*. To test the construction of an element, leave it out, and notice what thought-element is lacking.

1. I like her because she seems unselfish.
2. Life is real, life is earnest,
And the grave is not its goal ;
Dust thou art, to dust returnest,
Was not spoken of the soul.
3. Be like a bird.
4. There should be no failure on your part.
5. The king must win or he must lose his spurs forever.
6. The dew was falling fast ; the stars began to blink ;
I heard a voice ; it said, " Drink, pretty creature, drink."
7. Whatever is, is right.
8. The Lord shall send upon thee cursing until thou be destroyed.
9. For those that fly may fight again,
Which he can never do that's slain.
10. The evil that men do lives after them ;
The good is oft interred with their bones.
11. They never fail who die in a just cause.
12. Hadst thou been here he had not died.
13. From peak to peak, the rattling crags among,
Leaps the wild thunder.

14. There she stands, an empty urn within her hands.
15. They insisted that we should stay.
16. The people are like the sea, and orators are like the wind.
17. Is he the man who makes watches ?
18. Which is the seat that she may have ?
19. Whose book is it that you have lost ?
20. It is strange that you have not heard it.
21. What one needs, one has.
22. The fur which warms a monarch, warmed a bear.
23. This is the boy who always tells the truth.
24. God is and ever shall be.
25. Come unto me, and I will give you rest.
26. He met with a great many strange adventures, which would be well worth your hearing if I had leisure to narrate them as fully as they deserve.
27. Oh, sweet is the new violet that comes beneath the skies!

EXERCISE 8.

For analysis, under the direction of the teacher. For practice, turn these sentences into interrogative form.

1. Errors may arise from want of information.
2. Each of us sees with his own eyes.
3. His neighbors and friends have been very kind to him.
4. The children picked their way slowly through the mud.
5. To cease to change is to cease to live.
6. The gentle songsters of the air have flown to warmer climes.
7. There is no armor against fate.
8. Death lays his icy hands on kings.
9. Fame is no plant that grows on mortal soil.
10. Bacon is generally considered the greatest man of the Elizabethan Age with the single exception of Shakespeare.
11. Your wife would give you little thanks for that.
12. Out of the abundance of the heart, the mouth speaketh.
13. Are the sea and sky equally beautiful ?
14. Slowly and sadly we laid him down.
15. Were the colors of the autumn leaves very brilliant ?
16. Flow gently, sweet Afton,
 Among your green braes.

EXERCISE 3.

In the following questions determine, (1) what kind an element (subject, object, adjective, adverb) is unknown and so asked for; (2) what is the class (part of speech) construction of the interrogative substitute.

Who did it? Who are you? Where did you go? Whom you see? To whom did you speak? Which book (the large or small) did you take?

An Alternative Interrogative is a double question which the answer affirms one part to the exclusion the other, or denies both.

Ex. — Did he take the buggy or the carriage? **Ans.** He took buggy. Or, He took neither the buggy nor the carriage.

Interrogations are sometimes expressed in the declarative form, the voice or punctuation denoting the question. These should be described and disposed of exceptional forms.

Ex. — And you blame me for this?

43. (3) The Imperative Sentence, which commands, entreats, exhorts.

Ex. — Do your work. Help me, please. Be merciful.

The characteristics of this sentence are, that its subject is always *thou* or *you*, and that it is *not* expressed except occasionally in the grave form, when it is placed after, not before, the verb.

The reasons for the character and omission of subject are:—

- a. One commands only a present person.
- b. The subject, being perfectly understood, needs no expression.

at Auburn
wood;
gently,
the wood.

sol,
"it snow?"
other
we.

all,
a sky
at sorrow,
yed so high.

lence
like snow,
diling
yed woe.

dispered,
all,

and I kissed her;
could not know
of her sister,
wing snow.

LOWELL.

46. *THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE AND ITS GRAMMAR.*

17. Venerable men, you have come down to us from a former generation.

18. He hath the manners, the face, and the outward form of a Flemish butcher.

19. Trojan purple and Persian riches were celebrated by both Greek and Latin Poets.

20. He gives his parents no tremulous anxiety.

21. Shall we gather strength by irresolution and inaction?

22. Enthusiastically attached to the name of liberty, these historians troubled themselves little about its definition.

23. One morn, a Peri at the gate
 Of Eden stood disconsolate.

EXERCISE 9.

To be used, under the direction of the teacher, as drill upon principles already discussed.

THE FIRST SNOWFALL.

The snow had begun in the gloaming,
And busily all the night
Had been heaping field and highway
With a silence deep and white.

Every pine and fir and hemlock
Wore ermine too dear for an earl,
And the poorest twig on the elm-tree
Was ridged inch-deep with pearl.

From sheds new-roofed with Carrara
Came Chanticleer's muffled crow,
The stiff rails were softened to swan's-down,
And still fluttered down the snow.

I stood and watched by the window
The noiseless work of the sky,
And the sudden flurries of snow-birds,
Like brown leaves whirling by.

I thought of a mound in sweet Auburn
Where a little head-stone stood;
How the flakes were folding it gently,
As did robins the babes in the wood.

Up spoke our own little Mabel,
Saying, "Father, who makes it snow?"
And I told of the good All-father
Who cares for us here below.

Again I looked at the snowfall,
And I thought of the leaden sky
That arched o'er our first great sorrow,
When that mound was heaped so high.

I remembered the gradual patience
That fell from that cloud like snow,
Flake by flake healing and hiding
The scar of our deep plunged woe.

And again to the child I whispered,
"The snow that husheth all,
Darling, the merciful Father
Alone can make it fall!"

Then with eyes that saw not I kissed her;
And she, kissing back, could not know
That my kiss was given to her sister,
Folded close under deepening snow.

LOWELL.

CHAPTER V.

INFLECTION AND DERIVATION.

WORDS undergo two important changes, which present certain likenesses and differences that must be carefully distinguished.

INFLECTION.

In the following sentences, determine the different shades of *meaning* and *use* of the words: boy, run, he, large.

1. The boy runs. The boys run. The boy's brother ran.
2. He saw me. I saw him.
3. The large hats are becoming larger.

68. Definition. — Inflection is the process of changing the form of a word for the purpose of changing slightly its *meaning* or *use* in the sentence. The word means *bending into a different shape*, and the word thus bent is said to be inflected. The change is generally in the nature of an addition, and the original word is called the *base of inflection*. An inflectional change never changes the part of speech. The new form is still a form of the original word, though with a slightly changed meaning or use.

Ex. — Desk, desks (a difference of meaning). Desk, desk's (a difference of use).

69. Purpose of Inflection. — It will be seen that inflection is a means of packing several shades of meaning into a single symbol, and that a single inflected word can express what otherwise would require a number of separate words.

70. Inflection in English as Compared with Other Languages. — The various languages have developed very differently with regard to the matter of inflection. The Chinese has scarcely a trace of it. Every idea, every shade of meaning, must have its own symbol; so that the number of words in the language is enormous, and the difficulty of learning it correspondingly great. Other languages, like the Greek and Latin, have the principal parts of speech so fully inflected that very complex ideas can be expressed in one word. For example, the Latin verb *amavero* indicates, besides the general notion of *loving* : —

1. The speaker.
2. That the subject is singular.
3. That the time of the act is future.
4. That the state of the action is complete.
5. That the person represented by the subject performs the act.

The English, as compared with the Latin, is a very slightly inflected language, and therefore needs to be, as it is, very rich in vocabulary, especially in connective and relation words.

71. The Properties of a Word. — The special shades of meaning that belong peculiarly to a part of speech, as the *number* and *case* of a noun, the *mode* and *tense*

of the verb, the *degree* of an adjective, are called its properties; and these are commonly expressed by inflection.

COMPOSITION AND DERIVATION.

72. Composition is the process of forming a new word by combining two or more of those already existing in the language.

Ex. — Blackbird.

73. Derivation is the process of forming a new word by combining with one already in use a significant syllable, called a prefix or a suffix, according to its position.

These two processes differ from inflection in that a new word, a new *base of inflection*, is created, and generally, though not necessarily, a new part of speech.

Ex. — Preach + er (a noun from a verb).

Wise + ly (an adverb from an adjective).

Man + ly (an adjective from a noun).

Legal + ize (a verb from an adjective).

Duck + ling (a noun from a noun).

74. Classification of Words According to Derivation or Composition. — According to their derivation or composition, words are classified as primitive, derivative, or compound.

75. A Primitive Word is one which has been derived from no simpler word in the language.

Ex. — Man, family.

Many words have come to us from other languages, and a word which is primitive in English is not necessarily so in the language from which it comes. *Surpass*

in English is primitive, but it comes from two French words meaning "pass" and "over" or "beyond."

76. A Derivative Word is one formed by combining a simple word with one or more significant syllables, called prefixes or suffixes.

Ex. — Ad-join, man-ly.

77. A Root-Word is a primitive word which is taken as the base of a new derivative.

Ex. — *Home-ly*.

78. A Prefix is a syllable attached to the beginning of a root-word to form a derivative.

Ex. — *Pre* means *before*. Connected with the root-word *fix*, it means *that which is placed before*, or, as a verb, *to place before*.

79. A Suffix is a syllable attached to the end of a root-word to form a derivative.

Ex. — Edit-or.

The chief use of the suffix is to show the part of speech, or create a new one; and it is generally characterized as a verb-, adjective-, or noun-making suffix.

Ex. — er, or, ity, — are noun-making suffixes.

ate, ize, ish, — are verb-making suffixes.

able, ous, ive, — are adjective-making suffixes.

ly is an adverb-making suffix.

80. A Compound Word is one formed of two or more simpler words in the language.

Ex. — Fair-haired.

When two words by frequent use have completely grown together, they are written as one word.

Ex. — Nevertheless, forehead.

When their association is less constant, they are separated by a hyphen.

Ex. — High-born.

Dictionary authority must determine the correct form of the compound.

EXERCISE 10.

Classify the following words according to derivation, determining the meaning of the prefix, and the part of speech as decided by the suffix.

inoffensive	injury	goatee	indefensible	heroine
darling	land-lubber	happy	inkstand	runaway
bankrupt	boys	sincere	napkin	street
perjure	such	greater	mother-in-law	furniture
fair-haired	beautiful	lambkin	dishonesty	nonsense
captain	but	hillock	quicksilver	washtub

EXERCISE 11.

Which of the following are inflected forms, and which derivatives? What is the ground of your decision?

away	forests	whiten	disdainful	whose
her	warmed	wider	disdains	brotherly
tables	lightest	goes	me	brother's
joyous	children	departed	our	becomes
larger	truly	length	greenest	calmness

CHAPTER VI.

THE NOUN.

81. A Noun.—All known objects, whether of the realm of mind or matter, have corresponding ideas in the mind; and nouns are the representatives of these substantive ideas.

82. Nouns Difficult to Recognize.

1. Those nouns which name objects that have become known to us through the sense of sight are easiest to recognize.

Ex.—Man, road, tree, desk.

2. Those representing objects which have become known through the other senses are more difficult to recognize.

Ex.—Sound, taste, feeling, scent.

These include the names of qualities, conditions, and relations of objects.

Ex.—Smallness, sweetness, delicacy, anger.

3. Those which represent ideas which are apprehended only through the workings of the mind itself are the most difficult to recognize.

Ex.—God, reason, duty, mind, intellect.

83. The Tests of a Noun.—Words are classified as parts of speech according to the kind of ideas which they express. The first test of a noun, therefore, is to

note whether it represents an idea of an object, either of sense or of thought. A second test of a noun is to note whether it has the construction of a noun ; and to this end it is well to have the commoner constructions well in mind.

1. A noun may be used as subject of a verb.

Ex. — Now is the accepted time.

2. A noun may be used as object of a verb or preposition.

Ex. — I saw the brightness of the flush.

3. A noun may be used in the predicate to describe or identify the subject.

Ex. — The eye is a delicate instrument.

A third, though imperfect, test is to note whether a word is modified by a clearly recognized adjective.

84. Classification of Nouns. — According to differences of meaning, nouns are classified as proper and common.

85. A Proper Noun is a *given* name. The word means "one's own," and indicates that the name has been given to a single individual to distinguish it from all others of its class. It implies no qualities of the object it designates, and represents an individual notion.

86. Some Classes of Words which are Always Proper Nouns.

1. Names of persons and places (counties, cities, etc.).
2. Names of geographical features (mountains, rivers).
3. Names of planets and well-known stars (Jupiter, Sirius).

4. Names of months and days of week (not the seasons).
5. Names of Deity (God, Heavenly Father).
6. Names of domestic animals closely associated with man.

A proper noun is always begun with a capital letter.

87. A Common Noun is a class name. It is so called because it is owned in common by all the members of a class.

Ex. — Boy, desk.

It usually includes a set of attributes common to all the members of the class; viz., *Man* includes all the qualities of the male human being. *Soldier* includes all the military qualities of men. *Captain* includes the military qualities required to govern a company of soldiers. *Father* includes all the attributes which make a man the head of the family. All of these nouns might easily designate the same individual, each standing for a set of attributes which may or may not be included in the others. Common nouns represent general notions until they are limited, when they may represent individual notions.

Ex. — *Man* = all men. *This man* = a certain individual.

EXERCISE 12.

Distinguish between proper and common nouns, and state what attributes are included in the common nouns.

President	Ruffian	Woman	Gold	Branch
Ottawa	Child	Building	Lead	History
Kitten	Heaven	Carlo	Ohio	Tree
Landlord	Desk	Dog	Grammar	Mandolin
Venus	Ball	Animal	Henry Smith	Instrument
Lawyer	Doctor	Metal	Studies	Piano

88. Classification of Common Nouns, according to the attributes denoted.

Class Nouns. — Most common nouns are class nouns. They represent the attributes which distinguish the class to which they belong.

Ex. — Girl, table.

89. An Abstract Noun is one which names a single attribute, without reference to the object to which it naturally belongs. It is so called because the quality is “drawn off,” and considered apart from the object which possesses it. Qualities have no real existence apart from objects, and are naturally expressed by adjectives.

Ex. — A good boy.

We may *think* of the *quality*, however, without reference to the *boy*, and to name it we must use the abstract noun, *goodness*.

Ex. — Nearness, sleep, beauty, pity.

Verbal nouns, which are often considered a separate class, are really abstract nouns. They name *attributes* of action, being, or state.

Ex. — Reading, knowing, to see, to do.

90. A Collective Noun is one which, even in its singular number, names a group of objects.

Ex. — Herd, flock, pair, army.

Find examples of collective nouns applying to as many kinds of objects as possible.

When a collective noun in the singular number is used as subject, it is regarded as a singular subject, and

takes a singular verb, *provided* the statement is made about the group considered as a unit.

Ex. — The jury renders its verdict to-day.

When the statement concerns each individual of the group, the noun is equivalent to a plural subject, and requires a plural verb.

Ex. — The jury take their dinner at the hotel to-day.

Most collective nouns have regular plurals indicating several groups. Of course, these always require plural verbs.

91. A Gender Noun is one which denotes the attribute of sex in the object it names. As compared with the whole class of nouns, the number of this class is very small. A noun which denotes male sex is a masculine gender noun.

Ex. — Man, boy, ox, gander.

A noun which denotes female sex is a feminine gender noun.

Ex. — Woman, girl, heifer, cow.

Nouns which do not denote sex (and this is true of the great majority of nouns) are often called non-gender or neuter nouns, but there is no occasion for mentioning gender in connection with nouns which do not definitely distinguish sex.

Ex. — Parent, chair, child, person.

92. Gender a Classification, not a Property. — Gender in English is purely a distinction of sex. In the Latin (from which our technical terms are largely taken) gender, while based to some extent on sex, is largely a distinction of *form*. That is, every noun is

masculine, feminine, or neuter, according to the inflectional ending which it has. In that language, gender is truly a property, shown by inflection, and belonging to all nouns, as a property should. In English : —

1. Less than one-twentieth of the nouns make the distinction at all.
2. Many of those that *do* show it by entirely different words.

Ex. — Cow, bull, lord, lady, boy, girl.

3. Those feminine nouns which have most resemblance to inflected forms are best regarded as *new words*, derived from simpler forms, — not as inflectional forms. For the above reasons, we shall treat gender as a *classification*, not a *property*, of nouns.

The only grammatical reason for referring at all to the gender of nouns lies in the necessity of choosing appropriate pronouns to represent each class. This matter will be discussed under Pronouns.

EXERCISE 13.

Classify the common nouns in the following list.

teacher	stars	diligence	running	energy	table
bevy	chicken	sheep	clearness	choir	master
learning	evening	poet	brood	to fight	eclipse
suite	children	city	conquering	nation	charity
mountain	couple	gang	adventure	madam	general
bat	sailor	tribe	sir	crowd	juryman
gentleman	sorrow	pupils	to lead	professor	doctor

EXERCISE 14.

Give the class nouns to which these proper nouns correspond.

1. Boston, Chicago, Denver.
2. The Big Dipper, Cassiopeia, Orion.

3. Tennyson, Longfellow, Holmes.
4. Charlemagne, Frederick, Henry VIII.
5. Gibbon, Hume, Bancroft.
6. George Eliot, Dickens, Thackeray.
7. July, April, February.
8. England, Germany, France.
9. Edith, Laura, Carrie.
10. Australia, Asia, America.

EXERCISE 15.

Indicate the objects of which these groups may be composed.

Ex. — A class of students.

couple	committee	group	fleet	regiment	class
pair	school	team	clump	dozen	brace
family	society	brood	drove	congress	flock
gang	audience	herd	club	jury	tribe
bevy	company	covey	crew	choir	float

THE INFLECTION OF THE NOUN.

93. Number of Properties Shown. — Nouns are inflected for two properties only, number and case.

94. Number. — Number is the property of a substantive which indicates one or more than one. There are two numbers, the *singular*, which indicates one, and the *plural*, which indicates more than one.

Ex. — *Singular*, girl, tree, ox. *Plural*, girls, trees, oxen.

95. Extent of the Inflection. — Most nouns have this inflection. The chief exceptions are : —

1. Abstract nouns.

Ex. — Peace, happiness.

2. Certain collective nouns.

Ex. — Yoke, brace, dozen.

3. Nouns naming material.

Ex. — Gold, clay, flesh.

4. Certain names of animals.

Ex. — Sheep, fish, deer.

96. Character of the Inflection. — Nouns are inflected for number in three ways: —

1. By the use of the ending *s* or *es*.

Ex. — Hats, churches.

The ending *es* is used when the root ends in a hissing sound which will not unite with the *s* of the ending, necessitating a new syllable in order to pronounce the ending.

The great majority of nouns come under this class.

2. By the use of the ending *en*.

Ex. — Oxen, children, brethren.

Of this class there are very few indeed.

3. By an internal change.

Ex. — Men, feet, geese.

Few nouns now form their plurals in this way, but in the early history of the language the nouns of this class were very numerous.

97. Irregularities of Inflection.

1. Fifteen nouns ending in *f* or an *f*-sound change the *f* to *v* and add *es*.

Ex. — Halves, wives, shelves, beeves, selves, thieves, knives, wolves, sheaves, wharves.

All others are regular. All nouns ending in *ff* are regular, with the exception of *staff*, the plural of which may be *staves*.

2. All nouns ending in *y* after a consonant, change *y* to *i* and add *es*. Nouns ending in *y* after a vowel are regular; as, *boys*.

3. Nouns ending in *o* after a consonant add *es*, except the following list, which add *s* only: albino, bravo, burro, banjo, casino, chromo, contralto, canto, dynamo, domino, duodecimo, fresco, halo, junto, lasso, memento, octavo, piano, portico, proviso, quarto, solo, salvo, sirocco, stiletto, tyro, two, virtuoso, zero.
4. Letters, figures, and any part of speech used as a noun in the sense of "the word so and so," form their plurals by adding 's.

Ex. — Your *5's* are too small. Dot your *i's* and cross your *t's*. There are too many *that's* in the sentence.

5. Some nouns form regular plurals and also irregular ones, having somewhat different meaning: —

dies	dice
peas	pease
pennies	pence

98. Exceptional Facts about Number.

1. Words from foreign languages form their plurals according to the laws of those languages.

Ex. — Genus, genera.

index	indices	analysis	analyses
genius	genii	beau	beaux
cherub	cherubim	herbarium	herbaria
formula	formulæ	phenomenon	phenomena
stratum	strata		

When a foreign word is frequently used, it becomes naturalized, and forms its plural after English laws.

Ex. — Formulas, cherubs, indexes.

2. Some nouns have but one form, which is singular or plural according to use.

Ex. — Fish, sheep, deer, swine.

3. Some nouns are singular both in form and use.

Ex. — Lead, flesh, thankfulness.

4. Some nouns have only the plural form, and are always used as plurals.

Ex. — Shears, scissors, spectacles, nuptials, thanks, ashes, tongs, bellows, pincers, victuals, vitals, annals, entrails.

5. Some nouns look like plurals, but may be used either as plurals or as singulars.

Ex. — Species, means, politics, mathematics, series, wages, measles.

Riches, once only singular, is now always plural.

News and *ethics* are always singular.

99. Plural of Compounds. — The plural of compounds is formed by pluralizing the most important word.

Ex. — Fathers-in-law, blackbirds.

To this general rule there are three exceptions.

1. Compounds of which one of the words has dwindled to a mere suffix are treated as derivative words, and pluralized regularly.

Ex. — Bucketfuls, spoonfuls.

2. Descriptive compounds which mean nothing except as units are pluralized regularly.

Ex. — Runaways, redcoats, forget-me-nots.

3. Compounds in which the words are equally important (appositives) have both words pluralized.

Ex. — Men-servants, knights templars.

100. Case is the property of a noun or pronoun which indicates its construction in the sentence.

101. Extent of Case Inflection. — A complete inflection for case would require a different form for every

use that a noun has. The Latin noun has six cases to show its different uses, and is therefore a well, though not a perfectly, inflected language; no English noun has more than two forms, one which is used in one way only, and another used in all the other ways. It will be seen that this is a very small amount of inflection.

THE TWO CASE FORMS.

102. The Common Form of a noun is its simplest form, the one which is used in all constructions except as a possessive modifier.

NOTE. — Most grammarians call this form nominative when it is used as subject, and objective when it is used as object of a verb. But in so doing they confuse the *form* with the *use*. They should be consistent, and say there are eight cases (or indeed thirteen if they count every shade of meaning) if *case* means *use*, or confine the term to *form*, and acknowledge that there are but two.

103. The Uses of the Common Form.

1. Subject of verb — An *hour* has passed.
2. Object of verb — I knew the *hour*.
3. Indirect object — We give the *hour* its usual number of duties.
4. Objective complement — We call sixty minutes an *hour*.
5. Attribute complement — This is the *hour*.
6. Object of preposition — I thought of the *hour*.
7. Subject of infinitive — I heard the *hour* strike.
8. Apposition — The time, an *hour*, passed quickly.
9. Adverbial use — I walked an *hour*.
10. In address — O, *hours*, have you wings?
11. By pleonasm — The *hours*! how fast they fly!
12. Absolute construction — The *hour* being past, we ceased work.

104. The Possessive Case is the form which the noun takes in order to become a limiter of another noun. It indicates possession, origin, or kind.

Ex. — The man's hat.
Horsford's Baking Powder.
Men's shoes for sale.

105. Formation of Possessive Case.—To form the singular possessive add 's to the common form. To form the plural possessive add the apostrophe (') to the plural unless it does not end in s, in which case, add the apostrophe and s ('s).

106. Character of the Case Inflection.—It will be seen that the case inflection, though very slight in extent, is very regular in character, all forms being made in the same way, with the following single exception.

Singulars of two or more syllables, ending in a succession of hissing sounds, may form the possessive by adding the apostrophe (') only, to avoid unpleasant sound.

Ex. — Conscience' sake.

107. Joint Ownership.—Nouns connected by coördinating conjunctions are made to show joint ownership by adding the possessive sign to the last term only.

Ex. — John and Mary's books (books owned in common). Johnson and Morrison's store (store owned in common).

108. Separate ownership is indicated by adding the sign to each term.

Ex. — Mary's and Helen's dresses are pretty.

109. The Possessive Case of Compounds is made without exception by adding the sign to the last word.

Ex. — Father-in-law's.

Compare this law with that of the number formation of compounds.

110. Person. — No noun in the language is inflected for person. The fact that every noun used as subject requires a verb of the third person, shows that naturally the noun is of that person only. This fact should be noted when the noun is used as subject, for it governs the form of verb to be used with it. When a noun is used in apposition with a first or second personal pronoun, its person may be disregarded; for it does not *indicate* the property, and nothing depends upon the discrimination.

111. Gender. — As has been seen, gender is not shown by inflection, and is properly a classification, not a property, of nouns.

112. Summarized Facts Concerning the Inflection of Nouns.

Nouns are inflected for two properties, number and case.

The inflection for number is very full, but not perfect, since there are some nouns that have but one form. The number inflection is generally regular, though there are a number of irregularities. The inflection for case is very slight, being confined to two forms to show many uses, and only one of these really shows the *use*. As to character, the case inflection is

117. The Second Construction.

b. The Indirect Object. A noun which names the person toward whom an act is directed or for whom it is performed, *without the aid of any relation word*, is called an indirect object. It really names the receiver of the *object*. It is not a complement, but a modifier of the verb. Other languages have a distinct form, the dative case, for this use, as had the English until after the Norman Conquest. Now the common form of the noun is used, and the objective case of the pronoun. The same relation may be expressed by means of a noun used as the object of the preposition *to* or *for*, but the two constructions must not be confused. They are no more identical than the uses of the word *boy* in the following phrases: The *boy's* hat; the hat of the *boy*; although the dative ending has been lost, and the possessive retained. The position of this construction is between the verb and the direct object.

118. The Second Construction.

c. The Objective Complement. A noun which names a state, condition, or characteristic of the direct object, which has been brought about through the action of the verb, is called an objective complement.

Ex. — They made him governor.

It will be seen that the noun is complementary as regards the verb, and adjective as regards the direct object. In position it naturally follows the direct object. This construction is used only with transitive copulative verbs. The chief ones are: make, choose, elect, call, name. This construction is sometimes called a *factive* predicate or complement.

EXERCISE 16.

Determine and explain all objective constructions.

1. They love their daughters.
2. The child gave her mother a rose.
3. She called the plant a violet.
4. Do your teacher that favor.
5. He gives his parents no anxiety.
6. The gale had sighed itself to rest.
7. He paid the men their wages.
8. They call the emperor father.
9. The gentleman handed the servant his card.
10. Elizabeth made Raleigh a knight.
11. I will write the man a receipt in full.
12. The Turks call their ruler a sultan.
13. The wind sweeps the blossoms from the apple-trees.
14. Give me liberty, or give me death!
15. He called the people Indians.
16. Mary made her doll a dress.
17. Make her a grave where the lilies bloom.
18. Rolling stones gather no moss.
19. They called the baby John.
20. We elected Mr. Brown mayor.

119. The Third Construction.

The Predicate Noun or Attribute Complement. A noun which is identified with the subject through the copula or copulative verb is called a predicate noun. It is an attribute complement because it expresses a group of characteristics or attributes of the subject, and thus becomes a modifier of it. In most languages this identity is expressed by giving the word the case form of the subject,—the nominative. In English the common form of the noun and the nominative form of the pronoun are used.

Ex. — This gentleman is John Smith. My father is a farmer.

120. The Fourth Construction.

The Object of a Preposition. Generally speaking, a noun cannot become a modifier without the use of a connective which will express the relation which it is to bear to the modified element. We may say "I went — town;" but the word *town* does not become a modifier of *went* until the word *to* is used, to show that *town* is to bear the relation of *place* to *went*.

NOTE. — The II. *b*, and the VII. constructions are exceptions to this statement.

A noun which is brought into a modifying relation to another element by means of a preposition is said to be the object of the preposition. It forms with its preposition a phrase which is adjective or adverbial (rarely substantive), according to the part of speech affected by it.

Ex. — The friends of his childhood lie in their graves.

From the fact that such a word names an object entirely distinct from the subject, and also by analogy with the pronouns which require the objective case after the preposition, it will be seen that this is an objective relation, as its name implies; but the English noun has only the common form for this use.

121. The Fifth Construction.

The Subject of the Infinitive. An understanding of this use depends upon knowledge of the nature of the infinitive. A discussion of it will be found in ARTS. 413–416.

122. The Sixth Construction includes the two *adjective* uses of the noun.

123. a. Possessive Modifier. — This is the easiest of all uses to determine, since the form indicates the precise use. A noun in the possessive case limits the meaning of another substantive by naming its possessor, its origin, or its kind.

Ex. — The boy's marbles. Kingsford's starch. Men's shoes sold here.

124. b. Appositive Use. — A noun in apposition indicates a relation of identity which is assumed by merely placing the noun beside (and after) the modified word. This arbitrary position amounts to a grammatical connection, and distinguishes this use from independent constructions. The case form is naturally that of the modified word.

Ex. — Mary Jones, the milliner, has a fine display of goods. It was Mary, she who is always ready to help. You will see John, him whom I told you of. We left the book in Mr. Gray's, the president's, hands.

Sometimes a series of nouns, each indicating a partial identity, are together equivalent to the modified word.

Ex. — There lay the rifle, the barrel rusted, the stock broken, the lock wanting.

A partial apposition is often expressed by *as*, used as an introductory particle.

Ex. — He was introduced as a musician.

He labored as a mason.

125. The Seventh Construction.

The Adverbial Noun. A noun used to express the idea of *measure*, whether of time, distance, weight, value, age, or number, may be used without any connective to modify verbs, adjectives, and adverbs. This constitutes the adverbial construction of *nouns*.

72 THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE AND ITS GRAMMAR.

Ex. — He walked five blocks. The river is twenty-five feet deep. My friend will come a day later.

The adverbial noun of measure is especially often used to modify the adjective *worth*.

Ex. — My book is worth a dollar.

Since in some cases a preposition *may* be introduced to show these relations, it is clear that they are objective in nature; but it must not be supposed that a preposition is *understood* or need be supplied, for, from the earliest period of the language, the objective case of the noun has been used to express these ideas without other connective. When our objective case ending was lost, the common form took its place.

126. The Eighth Construction, the Independent Uses.

a. *Independent in Address.* In addressing a present person the name is unnecessary, the pronoun *thou* or *you* always forming the subject. For courtesy or impressiveness the name is often used, though grammatically superfluous, and is then said to be independent by address.

Ex. — Mary, you may go now. Soldiers, do your duty. See here, my friend.

From the fact that it refers to the subject, such a noun would naturally be nominative in form.

The punctuation shows the independence of the construction.

The grave form of the pronoun *thou* is especially often used independently by address, another pronoun, given or understood, forming the subject.

Ex. — O thou who rulest above, hear our prayer.

b. Independent by Pleonasm. In poetry and other impassioned use, a noun is frequently used independently of the subject and predicate, yet suggesting the prominent idea of the statement, which is then referred to by a pronoun. Such a noun is said to be independent by pleonasm, or often by exclamation. It may, however, be exclamatory without being pleonastic.

Ex. — The boy ! Oh, where was he ?
Music ! How I love it !

c. The Absolute Construction. An understanding of this use depends upon knowledge of the nature of participles. A discussion of it will be found in **ARTS. 424-427.**

EXERCISE 17.

Determine all noun constructions.

1. Neither a borrower nor a lender be.
2. He fears to give a farthing to the poor.
3. He gave one hundred dollars to his daughter, Elizabeth Child.
4. He gave one hundred dollars to his daughter, Elizabeth's child.
5. He gave one hundred dollars to his daughter Elizabeth's child.
6. Hard study made this man a scholar.
7. My brother, the lawyer, is visiting me.
8. He was paid for a week's work.
9. Men's opinions differ.
10. He talked an hour.
11. We waited three months in Corinth.
12. The hills of New England ! How proudly they rise !
13. We travelled all night long.
14. Our Father, which art in heaven, hallowed be thy name.
15. Our boat was a propeller.
16. The author turned carpenter when his pen failed.
17. My reasons I freely gave.
18. John has become a skilled mechanic.
19. Is your name Shylock ?
20. The ambitious strive for fame.

127. Substantives.—It should be remembered that *use* is the only basis of classification of words. A word, phrase, or clause used as a noun *is* naturally a noun, but it is common to distinguish between temporary noun uses and true names by calling the former substantives. From this description frame a definition of a substantive.

128. Other Parts of Speech used as Substantives.

1. **ADJECTIVES.**—An adjective becomes a substantive when the noun which it would naturally modify is suppressed, and the adjective made to do its work.

Ex.—The poor are always with us.
Choose the good and the true.
An American was the speaker.

2. **ADVERBS.**—An adverb may be used as a noun in various constructions.

Ex.—Now is the accepted time.
Since then, we have had no trouble.

3. **INFINITIVES.**—Except in idiomatic uses an infinitive is a real noun.

Ex.—To give is better than to receive.
Seeing is believing.

4. **WORDS REFERRED TO MERELY AS WORDS.**—Words used in the sense of “the word so and so,” are substantives.

Ex.—That that that you parsed should have been a which.

5. **PHRASES AND CLAUSES.**—Any phrase or clause used in a noun construction is a substantive.

Ex.—His purpose is to go to-morrow.
What he wants is not here.

EXERCISE 18.

Point out the substantives, and name their constructions.

1. Until now we have been contented.
2. The good is always worth seeking.
3. We made a quick run.
4. We were alone on the deep.
5. One draw in the bridge was left open.
6. They deserve to perish.
7. To draw true beauty shows a master's hand.
8. Giving to the poor is lending to the Lord.
9. General Grant knew that the enemy must surrender.
10. There the wicked cease from troubling.

129. Parsing. — To parse a word is to give a complete description of it as it stands in the sentence. To do this one must explain: —

1. Its Class, — by stating the part of speech and subclass.
2. Its Form, — by stating its properties as shown by inflection: if a noun, its number and case; if a verb, its person, number, mode, tense; if an adjective, its degree of comparison, etc.
3. Its Construction or relation to other words.

The last is the most important item, and must never be forgotten.

130. How to Parse a Noun. — State: —

1. Class, — common or proper.
2. Sub-Class, — class, collective, abstract, or gender.
3. Number, — singular or plural.
4. Case, — common or possessive.
5. Construction.

131. Practical Application of the Study of Nouns.

1. We study the classification of nouns to secure : —
 - a. The capitalization of proper nouns.
 - b. The agreement of verb with subject, especially in the case of abstract and collective nouns.
2. We study the number of nouns to secure agreement with the verb.
3. We study the case of nouns to secure the correct spelling of the possessive case.

EXERCISE 19.

Analyze the sentence and parse the nouns.

1. The president granted the prisoner a full pardon.
2. Cowards die many times before their deaths.
3. Time makes the worst enemies friends.
4. The brightest of all things, the sun, has its spots.
5. Suspicion always haunts the guilty mind.
6. The jury has rendered a just verdict.
7. Juries have been bought for gold.
8. Sweet are the uses of adversity.
9. America, our proud and happy home, we love thee.
10. The cobbler's last will last till he has dropped his last coin into the till.
11. Little was expected of us.
12. A little learning is a dangerous thing.
13. Does good music ever put you to sleep ?
14. A man without hope is of no good use to the world.
15. These mountain peaks now seem a family of giants.
16. Build thee more stately mansions, O my soul!
17. He giveth his beloved sleep.
18. The wind! the wind! it well may charm the rudest soul to rest.
19. Every why has a wherefore.
20. Men called the first steamboat "Fulton's Folly."
21. Men may live fools, but fools they cannot die.

CHAPTER VII.

THE PRONOUN.

132. A Pronoun, as its name indicates, is a substitute for a noun. It is an inconspicuous word, used to avoid frequent and bungling repetitions of a noun. In the sentence, — Mary cut Mary's finger because Mary did not use Mary's knife properly, — the need of such a word is apparent. The noun for which a pronoun stands is called its *antecedent*, because it usually precedes the pronoun. It may or may not be expressed.

133. Distinction between Nouns and Pronouns. — A pronoun differs from a noun: —

1. In that it does not name, it merely suggests a name.

Ex. — This is my book. Who did it?

2. In that it may not be modified by an attributive adjective.

Ex. — A small boy, not a small he.

3. In that it has a fuller inflection.

134. The Inflection of the pronoun, like that of the noun, is called declension; but it differs so greatly in extent that the subject must be considered in connection with the various classes.

135. Constructions. — The uses of pronouns are the same as those of nouns.

136. Classes of Pronouns.—Pronouns include five classes : —

1. Personal Pronouns.
2. Demonstrative Pronouns.
3. Interrogative Pronouns.
4. Conjunctive Pronouns.
5. Indefinite Pronouns.

PERSONAL PRONOUNS.

137. A Personal Pronoun is one which indicates the grammatical property of *person*; i.e., it distinguishes by its form between the speaker, the person spoken to, and the person or *thing* spoken of.

138. List of Personal Pronouns.—There are six personal pronouns.

- | | |
|--|--------------------|
| 1. The first person. | <i>I</i> see. |
| 2. The common form of the second person. | <i>You</i> see. |
| 3. The grave form of the second person. | <i>Thou</i> seest. |
| 4. The masculine form of the third person. | <i>He</i> sees. |
| 5. The feminine form of the third person. | <i>She</i> sees. |
| 6. The neuter form of the third person. | <i>It</i> sees. |

EXERCISE 20.

Determine the person of the pronouns.

1. I will find my brother and bring him to you.
2. He smiled when he saw me.
3. They saw her before she saw them.
4. Thou art the man.
5. Ye know not what I do.
6. Her hat is just like mine.
7. Give it to us.
8. We will call for him and her.
9. The hat has lost its crown.
10. Our books have lost some of their leaves.

139. Declension of Personal Pronouns.

FIRST PERSON.			SECOND PERSON.			
	<i>Sing.</i>	<i>Plur.</i>	COMMON FORM.		GRAVE FORM.	
	<i>Sing.</i>	<i>Plur.</i>	<i>Sing.</i>	<i>Plur.</i>	<i>Sing.</i>	<i>Plur.</i>
<i>Nom.</i>	I	we	you	(same)	thou	ye
<i>Poss.</i>	my	our	your	(same)	thy	your
	mine	ours	yours	(same)	thine	yours
<i>Obj.</i>	me	us	you	(same)	thee	you

THIRD PERSON.				
	<i>Singular.</i>			<i>Plural.</i>
	MAS.	FEM.	NEUT.	
<i>Nom.</i>	he	she	it	they
<i>Poss.</i>	his	her	its	their
		hers		theirs
<i>Obj.</i>	him	her	it	them

140. **Number of Properties Shown.** — Study of the above declension will show that four distinct properties are indicated to greater or less extent: person, number, gender, case.

141. Amount of Inflection for Each Property.

1. *Person.* Since every form indicates a definite person, the first, second, or third, the distinction for person is complete.
2. *Number.* The first and third personal forms, and the grave form of the second person, indicate definitely either *one* or *more than one*; but, in the common form of the second person, the same forms have to do duty as both singular and plural, according to use, and so do not *distinguish* number at all. The inflection for *number*, then, is partial, the deficiency being in the second person.

3. *Gender.* The inflection for *gender* is very slight, being confined to the singular number of the third person.
4. *Case.* There are, in general, three well-defined cases, the nominative, the possessive, and the objective, although in the second person, and in the feminine and neuter of the third person, there are but two case forms.

This is but a partial inflection, since these three forms have to fulfil the many uses of the noun; but, as compared with the noun, the case inflection of the pronoun is fuller by one form.

142. Character of the Inflection. — Generally speaking, an inflection is a *slight* change in the form of a word. When the change becomes very great, the inflection is described as irregular. All of the properties of the pronoun are shown by changes so great that it becomes a question as to whether they should be called inflection at all. The changes from *I* to *you*, for person; from *me* to *us*, for number; and from *she* to *it*, for gender, — are entire changes of word, not really *inflection* at all; but, since they serve perfectly the purpose of inflection, and since other changes *are* inflectional, it is convenient to use the term, and to describe the entire inflection of the personal pronoun as very irregular in character.

143. Use of the Plural Forms of the First Person. — *We*, *our*, and *us* represent the speaker and any others whom he chooses to include with himself. *We* is sometimes used by a sovereign or an editor, of himself alone.

Ex. — We voice the sentiments of the people.

This use is spoken of as the “editorial *we*.”

144. The Grave Declension is now employed only in higher and more serious uses, as in poetry and prayer.

145. Uses of You. — *You*, which was formerly a plural objective case form, is now used as both nominative and objective, singular and plural; but, because of its original meaning, it requires a plural verb, whether it refers to one or more than one.

146. Uses of the Secondary Possessive Forms. — The pronouns, *mine*, *thine*, *yours*, *his*, *hers*, *theirs*, are idiomatic in use. They represent both the possessor and the thing possessed, and are used where otherwise nominative or objective forms would be required.

Ex. — Mine (my pencils) are too short.	Nominative use.
This is hers (her book).	Predicate nominative use.
He liked mine (my picture).	Objective use.
He is a friend of mine.	Objective use.

147. Uses of the Gender Pronouns. — The masculine forms, *he*, *his*, *him*, are used to represent masculine gender nouns. The feminine forms, *she*, *her*, represent feminine gender nouns.

For rhetorical reasons these are sometimes made to refer to neuter nouns; and when so used, they constitute the figure of speech called personification.

Ex. — The sun shed his warm beams upon us.

In personification, the masculine or feminine form is used according as we wish to endow the object with manly or womanly characteristics. Weakness, delicacy, beauty, are peculiarly feminine attributes, while strength, ruggedness, ferocity, etc., are regarded as masculine.

The neuter forms, *it*, *its*, are regularly used to represent neuter nouns.

Ex. — The book has lost its first page.

But they have some peculiar uses which will be explained later.

148. The Uses of the Nominative Case. — The nominative case is used in: —

- I. Construction: *I* am here.
- III. Construction: It is *I*.
- VI. Construction: (*b*) Here comes Robert, *he* who does that work.
- VIII. Construction: (*a*) O thou, who doest all things well.
- VIII. Construction: (*b*) Oh, luckless *I*.
- VIII. Construction: (*c*) *He* agreeing, the rest of us could not refuse.

149. The Use of the Possessive Case.

- VI. Construction: (*a*) Your friend is here.

150. Uses of the Objective Case. — The objective case is used in: —

- II. Construction: (*a*) I saw *him*.
- II. Construction: (*b*) Give me your attention.
- IV. Construction: Do it for *us*.
- V. Construction: I ordered *them* to go.

151. Special Uses of the Neuter Pronoun. — As has been shown, the *natural* use of this pronoun is to refer to a neuter noun called its antecedent. The following special uses are to be noticed.

1. *The Impersonal Use.* *It* is often used indefinitely, representing no real person or thing. It is usually the subject of verbs representing action or conditions of nature, for which we can think of no actor.

Ex. — It rains. It is cold. It is five o'clock.

In such cases it has no antecedent, and is said to be used impersonally.

2. *The Expletive Use.* When a phrase or a clause is used as the subject of a verb, we frequently throw it after the predicate for the sake of variety, or to make a stronger or smoother sentence. In such a case, the little word *it* is put in the place of the real subject simply to "fill up." For this reason it is called an *expletive*. It serves no grammatical purpose in the sentence, and is to be discarded in analysis, the true subject being put in its proper place.

Ex. — It is unfortunate that we cannot go.
It is easy to see where the fault lies.

In some uses the word retains a vague substantive force, the logical subject being in apposition with it. In such cases it may be called the grammatical subject.

Ex. — Who is it that taps at my chamber door?

152. Compound Personal Pronouns are formed by adding *self* and *selves* to the possessive forms of *I* and *thou*, and the objective forms of *he*, *she*, and *it*. Their uses are : —

1. *For Emphasis*, in two constructions : —

- a. As object of preposition. **Ex.** — I bought it for myself.
- b. In apposition. **Ex.** — I will do it myself.

When used in apposition, the position of the word is very free. It may follow closely the modified word.

Ex. — I myself am to blame.

Or it may be thrown after the predicate.

2. *As Reflexive Object.* When the doer of an act also receives it, the act is said to reflect or be bent back upon the subject, and the object is called a reflexive object.

Ex. — I struck myself. He hurt himself.

The compounds, and occasionally the simple pronouns, are used in this way.

Ex. — Now I lay me down to sleep,

This is the only kind of direct object which can mean the same thing as the subject.

EXERCISE 21.

What properties of the following pronouns can you determine from their form ?

You, we, they, she, her, he, it, our, him, them, I, we, you, thine, their, our, it, him, us, ye, thou, their, your, thee, hers, he, them, our, they, my, she, his, mine, we, yours, her, thy, its.

From the above list select : —

1. All pronouns of the first person.
2. All pronouns of the second person.
3. All pronouns of the third person.
4. All nominative forms.
5. All possessives.
6. All objectives.
7. All singular numbers.
8. All plural numbers.
9. All gender pronouns.

EXERCISE 22.

Fill each blank in the following sentences with one of these words : *he, she, him, her, I, we, me.*

1. She says that you and — may go.
2. It makes no difference to either you or —
3. — that cometh to me I will in no wise cast off.
4. Who ate the orange ? It was —.
5. You and — and — will manage the affair.
6. If I were — I would resist.
7. Was it — that I saw ? No, it was —.
8. Will you not let Mary and — go home ?
9. When you saw — and — we were walking.
10. She wants — and — to be prompt.
11. Look at Lucy and — ; we are running.
12. It is neither — nor — that is wanted.
13. — that overcometh will I make a pillar in the temple.

Fill the following with *we, us, they, them.*

14. That is wholesome doctrine for — Americans.
15. Did you say that — or — were chosen.
16. Let none touch it but — that are clean.
17. It was — whom you saw.
18. Could it have been — who did the mischief ?
19. Whom did she call ? — girls.

EXERCISE 23.

Give personal pronouns according with the following descriptions : —

1. 3d person, plural number, 6th construction (*a*).
2. 2nd person, singular number, grave form, 8th construction (*a*).
3. 1st person, singular number, 3rd construction.
4. 2nd person, singular number, common form, 2nd construction (*b*).
5. 3rd person, singular number, feminine gender, 3rd construction.
6. 3rd person, singular number, neuter gender, expletive use.
7. 2nd person, plural number, compound, emphatic use.

This name, since it is supplied in the answer, —

Ex. — John is wanted. He wants a book.

is not really an antecedent, but a consequent. Notice that the pronoun in the question always has the same construction which the consequent has in the answer.

159. List of Interrogatives. — There are but three interrogative pronouns: *who*, which asks for a person; *what*, which asks for a thing; and *which*, which asks for both persons and things.

160. Inflection. — Of the interrogatives, *which* and *what* have no inflection whatever, and *who* is inflected for case only: —

SINGULAR OR PLURAL.

Nom. Who.

Poss. Whose.

Obj. Whom.

Since there is no inflection for number, that property must be determined from the context.

161. Constructions. — These pronouns may be used in: —

- I. Construction: *Which* did it?
- II. Construction: (a) *What* does he want?
- III. Construction: *What* is this curious object?
- IV. Construction: Of *whom* do you speak?

and the possessive of *who*, also used in: —

- VI. Construction: (a) *Whose* hat is this?

162. Position in the Sentence. — Whatever the grammatical relation of these words, they stand at the beginning of the sentence, except when object of a

Sometimes it matters little (to the sense) which is regarded as subject ; but the true construction can easily be found by supplying the answer, and noting the construction of the noun which takes the place of the interrogative.

Ex. — He is John Smith.

Here *he*, the person, is known, and is the subject of thought ; the unknown thing is a mere descriptive element, his name, therefore *who*, is attribute complement.

EXERCISE 24.

Distinguish between pronouns and adjectives, give the construction of each pronoun, and the number if it can be obtained.

1. For whom are you working ?
2. What is that ?
3. Which sort do you prefer ?
4. Whose books are in the best condition ?
5. Which deserves the present ?
6. Whom seek ye here ?
7. What good will this do ?
8. Which of the papers published the account ?
9. Whom did you see last night ?
10. Which did he take ?

THE CONJUNCTIVE PRONOUN.

165. The Twofold Nature of the Class. — If we had only personal and demonstrative pronouns, there would be no possibility of making one clause a modifier of a substantive in another. In the statements : — The boy will soon have dollars ; he saves pennies — we conjecture that *he* means *boy* from the fact that it follows it so closely, but it in no sense binds the two clauses together. If we wish to describe *boy* by the thought of the second statement, we must use a word which will

be equivalent to the pronoun *he*, and which will also *connect* the clause with *boy*, identifying it as a modifier.

Ex. — The boy who (= if he) saves pennies will soon have dollars.

In the sentence, I choose what is good, *what* represents an indefinite unexpressed antecedent, and also stamps its clause as dependent, making it possible to use it as the object of the verb *choose*. In the above illustrations the words *who* and *what* are unlike in some particulars, but are alike in that they have a twofold nature. They are at once substantives and connectives.

166. The Conjunctive Pronoun is a clause connective which has a pronoun office in its own clause, representing a substantive either given or indefinite in character.

Ex. — The flowers that bloom earliest are enjoyed most.

167. Classification. — Conjunctive pronouns are of two kinds: —

1. Relative conjunctive pronouns.
2. Indefinite conjunctive pronouns.

RELATIVE CONJUNCTIVE PRONOUNS.

168. A Relative Pronoun is one which represents an expressed substantive, and connects to it a modifying clause.

Ex. — The top that spins best is mine.

169. Relative Pronouns found only in Complex Sentences. — It is evident from the definition that relative pronouns are found only in complex sentences, and in the clauses of these; and, furthermore, that the clause

is invariably adjective in use, since the pronoun connects it to a substantive, its antecedent.

170. List of Relative Pronouns. — There are but three pure relative pronouns, *who*, *which*, and *that*; but *as* and *but* are occasionally used with nearly their value.

Ex. — This is the boy who stole the grapes.
 Flowers which fade soon are not profitable.
 The woman that hesitates is lost.
 Take such things as are useful.
 There is none but knows it. (but = that not.)

171. Inflection. — Of the relative pronouns, *which* and *that* are uninflected, and *who* is inflected for case only.

<i>Nom.</i>	<i>Poss.</i>	<i>Objective.</i>
who	whose	whom

The same words do duty both as singulars and as plurals.

172. Constructions. — Relative pronouns are used in four constructions: —

I. Subject of a Verb.

Ex. — The person who did it should acknowledge it.

II. (*a*). Object of a Verb.

Ex. — The person whom I mean may stand.

IV. Object of a Preposition.

Ex. — The person to whom I nod may leave.

VI. (*a*). Possessive Modifier.

Ex. — The person whose face is flushed is the guilty one.

Of course *which* and *that*, having no inflection for case, cannot be used in this way, although *whose* is sometimes used as if it were the possessive of *which*.

Ex. — A tale whose lightest word would harrow up thy soul.

If this were expressed in the nominative, *which*, not *who*, would be used.

Ex. — A tale which would harrow, etc.

173. Agreement. — There being no inflection for person and number, there is no necessity for referring to these properties except when the pronouns are used in the first construction, when it becomes necessary to know them in order to use the correct form of verb.

The relative, like other pronouns, agrees with its antecedent in person and number. Its case is decided by its construction in the clause.

Ex. — I who am your friend.	First, singular.
You who are my friends.	Second, plural.
Thou who art my friend.	Second, singular.
He who is my friend.	Third, singular.
They who are my friends.	Third, plural.

174. Position of the Relative Pronoun. — In general, the office of a pronoun as clause connective determines its position at the beginning of the clause, whatever its grammatical construction. When, however, it is used as object of a preposition, there are two conflicting laws that would tend to fix its position. As clause connective, it should lead the clause; as object of preposition, it should follow that. A compromise is effected by which the whole prepositional phrase is removed to the beginning, although in office it may be adverbial.

Ex. — The man of whom I speak.

Or, the relative may be placed first, its governing preposition keeping its own position.

Ex. — The man whom I speak of.

This position of the preposition is often condemned as rhetorically weak ; but in many uses of our interrogative and conjunctive pronouns it is good idiomatic English, — stronger and less pedantic than the approved form.

Compare : —

Of what can he be thinking ?

He knows for whom he asked.

with —

What can he be thinking of ?

He knows whom he asked for.

175. Position of That. — The relative *that*, when used as object of a preposition, is always separated from it and made to lead the clause, the preposition governing it keeping its natural place. There is no accounting for this peculiarity. It is merely an arbitrary custom.

176. Limitations in the Uses of Pronouns. — *Who* is used only in reference to *persons* or things personified, *which* to animals or *things*, and *that* to either persons, animals, or things.

That is preferred : —

1. When the antecedent includes both persons and things.

Ex. — The man and horse that were killed.

2. After an adjective of the superlative degree.

Ex. — This is the finest crop that I have seen.

Many writers confine the use of *that* to restrictive clauses, using *who* and *which* for descriptive clauses ; but there is abundant authority for the broadest use of it.

In early English, *which* was also used of persons.

Ex. — Our Father which art in heaven.

177. As and But as Relative Pronouns. — *As* is used after *such*, *many*, and *same* in such a way that it serves as subject (or object) and connective of its clause. In such a use, it falls under the definition of a relative pronoun. *But* may be used in an elliptical way, being equivalent to a relative pronoun and a negative adverb.

Ex. — There is not a man here but (that) knows it (not).

INDEFINITE OR COMPOUND CONJUNCTIVE PRONOUNS.

178. The words *what*, *whoever*, *whichever*, *whatever*, *whosoever*, *whichsoever*, and *whatsoever* are used to represent an antecedent which is not expressed, because it is unknown, or is so vague as to include a great many objects. The following examples will make this point clear.

Ex. — Whatever is, is right. Whatever = everything that.

Take what you want. What = as many things as.

Take whichever you prefer. Whichever = any one of several things.

179. An Indefinite Conjunctive Pronoun is one that introduces a dependent clause, and represents a vague or indefinite antecedent which is not expressed. The clause in which it stands does the work of the antecedent, therefore the indefinite conjunctive pronoun is found *only* in a substantive clause.

Ex. — I know what he wants.

Whatever is needed is provided.

180. Nothing can be more senseless than the common practice of separating these words into the two values

that which, and disposing of these words instead of the required one.

Ex. — In the sentence :—

Take what you want, *what* = *that which*.

It is as if one should resolve the phrase "John's hat" into "the hat of John" in order to dispose of "John's."

The value of these words lies in the fact that the antecedent may be left broad and vague; and, if the purpose of the change is to make the expression more definite, it certainly is not accomplished in the equivalent *that which*, for *that* is quite as indefinite as *what*.

A disposal which changes the construction is no disposal at all.

181. The Indefinites Compound in Form. — These words, with the exception of *what*, are all compound in *form*, and all are compound in meaning; i.e., they represent both antecedent and simple relative. They are often, and properly, called compound conjunctive pronouns.

The simple relatives *who* and *which* are occasionally used with this compound value, and when so used are always found in substantive clauses, and should be parsed as *indefinite*, not relative, conjunctive pronouns.

Ex. — Who steals my purse steals trash

I know which he wants.

182. Indefinite Conjunctive Adjectives. — With the exception of *whoever* and *whosoever*, these words are often used to limit an expressed noun.

Ex. — Choose whatsoever things are right.

I know what trouble comes from carelessness.

They are then called indefinite conjunctive adjectives. They, too, are found only in substantive clauses.

183. Inflection. — Indefinite conjunctive pronouns are uninflected except *whosoever*, which has three case-forms : —

<i>Nom.</i>	<i>Poss.</i>	<i>Obj.</i>
whosoever.	whosesoever.	whomsoever.

184. Constructions of Indefinite Conjunctive Pronouns.

I. Subject.

Ex. — Whoever goes must attend to this matter.

II. (a). Object of Verb.

Ex. — You may have whatever you wish.

III. Attribute Complement.

Ex. — What he seems is less important than what he is.

IV. Object of Preposition.

Ex. — What he intended it for I do not know.

185. Constructions of Substantive Clauses introduced by Indefinite Conjunctive Pronouns.

I. Subject.

Ex. — Whichever you desire will be furnished.

II. (a). Object of Verb.

Ex. — You may have what there is.

II. (c). Objective Complement.

Ex. — You have made me what I am.

III. Attribute Complement.

Ex. — That was what I wanted.

IV. Object of Preposition.

Ex. — Take me for what I am worth.

VI. (b). Apposition.

Ex. — He is a villain, whoever he may be.

EXERCISE 25.

Parse the conjunctive pronouns.

1. He who is his own lawyer has a fool for a client.
2. Death is the season that brings our affections to the test.
3. Here is an account of what was done.
4. I do not know what book you want.
5. We love those who aid us in gratifying our desires.
6. We bought such land as was recommended.
7. We seldom value highly that which costs nothing.
8. Never leave until to-morrow what you can do to-day.
9. Wisdom is the habit by which we select right means for right ends.
10. That plea was one in which Mr. Lincoln made an appeal that quite surpassed his usual efforts.
11. Riches that are ill-gotten are seldom enjoyed.
12. There is a tide in the affairs of men, which, taken at the flood, leads on to fortune.
13. Nature never did betray the heart that loved her
14. What is right must be done.
15. I know which book she will choose.
16. He that can have patience can have what he will.
17. Whom the gods love die young.
18. These are the men some of whom visited us yesterday.

INDEFINITE PRONOUNS.

186. Definition. — Indefinite pronouns are words whose antecedents are not expressed, and are very general and indefinite in meaning. Most of them have a vague implication of number or quantity.

Ex. — One naturally does his best under such circumstances.

Many were lost.

Each took a pear.

This is a floating class of words having a close resemblance to nouns and pronouns on one hand, and adjectives on the other. Most of them are freely used

as indefinite pronominal adjectives, and are always so classed when they are used to limit expressed nouns.

Ex. — One book was taken. Many people went.

187. Classes.— These pronouns are divided, according to certain differences of meaning, into four classes :—

1. The Comparatives, which imply a comparison : such, other.

Ex. — Take such as you want.
The other was missing.

2. The Numerals and Quantitatives, which indicate indefinite number or quantity : one, some, any, many, few, all, both, same, aught, naught, none, much, several, enough.

3. The Distributives, which have a general reference to a number of objects, but which distribute these into *ones*, about which, individually, the assertion is made : each, either, neither.

Ex. — Each was present.
Neither is satisfactory.

These words are always singular in meaning, and require singular verbs.

The compounds, — somebody, something, nothing, nobody, — formed by prefixing *some* and *no* to the vague words *body* and *thing*, are sometimes classed as pronouns ; but there is not sufficient authority for such a disposition of them. They are best regarded as nouns having very vague and general meanings.

4. The Reciprocals, which are idiomatic pronoun phrases, the two words composing them being used in a mutual sense : each other and one another. *Each other* is used in reference to two persons, and *one another* in reference to more than two.

188. Inflection. — Of the indefinite pronouns, one and other are inflected for number and one case, the possessive; the other words of the class are uninflected.

	SING.	PLURAL.
<i>Nom.</i>	one	ones
	other	others
<i>Poss.</i>	one's	ones'
	other's	others'

189. Constructions. — Indefinite pronouns have in general the same constructions as personal pronouns.

190. Cautions in the use of Pronouns.

1. Use pronouns that agree in person, number, and gender with their antecedents.

Ex. — The little girl loves her mother dearly.

2. See that the verb agrees in person and number with the subject.

Ex. — You are to blame

3. In using together pronouns of different persons, the second person precedes the third, and the third precedes the first.

Ex. — You and he and I will go.

4. If the parts of a compound subject connected by *and* differ in person, the subject is regarded as plural, and the verb must agree in *number* at the expense of person.

Ex. — You and I are to go.

5. If the parts of a compound subject are connected by a disjunctive conjunction (or, but), the verb must agree in person and number with the last term.

Ex. — Either you or he is to go.

Neither you nor he nor I am wanted.

6. See that the nominative case follows copula and copulative verbs.

Ex. — It was we, I, he.

7. See that an interrogative (or conjunctive) pronoun used as the object of a verb or preposition has the objective case, though it stands at the beginning of its sentence.

Ex. — Whom did you see?
I don't know whom you meant.

8. See that a singular verb is used with all distributive indefinite pronouns.

Ex. — Neither of them was there.

9. See that *all* the parts of a compound object of a preposition have the objective case.

Ex. — Between you and me the attempt was a failure.

191. Direction for Parsing a Pronoun — In parsing a pronoun, state : —

1. Its class.
2. Its antecedent if it is expressed.
3. Its gender if it is a personal pronoun of the third person, singular.
4. Its person if it is a personal pronoun.
5. Its number.
6. Its case (if uninflected, say so).
7. Its construction.

EXERCISE 26.

Parse all pronouns.

Ex. — I love those who love me.

I is a personal pronoun, first person, singular number, nominative case, 1. construction, subject of the verb love.

Those is a demonstrative pronoun, plural number, uninflected for case, II. construction (*a*), object of verb love.

Who is a relative pronoun, third person, plural, to agree with its antecedent *those*, nominative case, I. construction, subject of the verb love. It connects the adjective clause to *those*.

Ex. — Who wants some ?

Who is an interrogative pronoun, singular number as shown by the verb, nominative case, I. construction, subject of the verb wants.

Some is a quantitative indefinite pronoun, uninflected, II. construction (*a*), object of the verb wants.

1. What book is that ?
2. There is something in the wind.
3. I that speak to you am he.
4. Bring what he wants.
5. To whom shall they go ?
6. I must find it myself.
7. What one needs, one has.
8. Both were young and one was fair.
9. Is it this that you want ?
10. What is that that you hold ?
11. Who comes here ?
12. He died that we might live.
13. It is strange that you have not heard it.
14. It is true that you whom I know can give me sympathy.
15. That is the drollest story that was ever told.
16. Which is the seat that she may have ?
17. Are you the one whom we sent for ?
18. Whose book is it that you have lost ?
19. It is strange that you have never seen this.
20. That was he without whose life I had not been.
21. This is the book that you sent me.
22. It is a pretty saying of a wicked one.
23. That that that that that girl parsed was a noun is true.
24. I thought he was a rascal, and he was one.
25. She does not know the man who said that.

102 *THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE AND ITS GRAMMAR.*

26. We speak that which we do know.
27. We shall be glad to have you entertain us.
28. I wish you would come to see me.
29. We respect those that respect themselves.
30. All that breathe will share thy destiny.
31. One ought to rely upon one's self.
32. They say that she cannot go if it snows.
33. How poor are they that have no patience.
34. He was one of the best men that ever lived.
35. Sin has many tools, but a lie is a handle that fits them all.
36. You moon, have you done something wrong in heaven that
God has hidden your face?
37. I used some for myself and some for a friend of mine.
38. That tongue of hers will make trouble.

CHAPTER VIII.

THE ADJECTIVE.

192. The Adjective is the modifier of the substantive. It makes the idea of an object definite by adding to it a quality, action, or some limitation of place, time, or number.

Ex. — A sweet orange, a running stream, an evening train, an upper berth, two peaches.

193. Adjectives Compared with Verbs. — Adjectives and verbs are alike in that they are attributive words. They differ in that the verb has power to assert its own attribute, while the adjective merely assumes or ascribes its attribute in the form of a modifier. From this comparison it is apparent that the adjective needs only the assistance of the copula to become the exact equivalent of the verb; viz., to form a *predicate*.

Ex. — The horse is black. The horse runs (is running).

194. Inflection. — In most other languages, adjectives change their form to agree in gender, number, and case with their nouns. English adjectives have no inflection whatever for gender and case, and none for number except the two demonstratives *this* and *that*, which change to *these* and *those* before plural nouns.

The one inflection which the adjective has is called comparison. Since it is confined to the qualitative adjectives, the subject will be considered under that head.

195. Classification of Adjectives. — While adjectives have but one function, the modification of the noun, they vary in meaning so greatly as to require a somewhat elaborate classification. According to differences of meaning, adjectives may be divided into five classes :—

1. Qualitative.
2. Participial.
3. Quantitative.
4. Locative.
5. Pronominal.

QUALITATIVE ADJECTIVES.

196. Qualitative Adjectives are such as express pure and inherent qualities of things.

Ex. — A red dress. A good child. A bitter drug. A large dog.

197. Comparison. — Objects are compared by noting the relative amount of qualities possessed by them. Qualitative adjectives have a form of inflection which expresses varying degrees of quality, and this inflection is called comparison.

198. Degrees of Comparison. — The inflected forms of the adjective are known as the positive, comparative, and superlative degrees.

199. The Positive Form is not properly a degree, though by analogy it is called so. It expresses merely the *existence* of the quality.

Ex. — Large, sweet, hard.

200. The Comparative Degree is formed by suffixing the syllable *er* to the positive. It signifies that two

objects have been compared, and that one of them possesses more or less of the quality than the other.

201. The Superlative Degree is formed by suffixing *est* to the positive. It signifies that, of three or more objects compared, one of them possesses more or less of the quality than any of the others.

202. Correct Use. — The comparative degree should be strictly confined to a comparison of two objects, and the superlative to more than two.

203. Extent of Inflection. — What adjectives shall be compared depends primarily upon the length of the word, but also to some extent upon its meaning. *Most* adjectives of one syllable are inflected, comparatively *few* of two syllables, and *almost none* of three syllables. The adjectives which do not admit of comparison fall into two classes: —

1. Those which in their simple forms express absolute or superlative ideas.

Ex. — Dead, equal, annual.

Custom sanctions an exception to this statement in the case of some words, such as straight, round, which have absolute meanings, but which are very conveniently employed when there is no intention of being mathematically exact. To these words may be added the symbols for the colors, black, red, etc.

2. Those which are so long that the addition of the suffix would create an unmusical word.

Ex. — Beautifuller.

204. Phrases Supplementary to a Slight Inflection. — Such words as are not truly compared (inflected) may be made to show different degrees of quality by forming adjective phrases with the adverbs *more* and *most*.

Ex. — More beautiful, most beautiful.

These are called respectively comparative and superlative adjective phrases, and are best parsed as units, though the modification of the adjective by the adverb is simply the natural construction of the adverb.

Many adjectives which are regularly compared may also have their degrees expressed in this way.

205. Technical Use of the Term Comparison. — Notice that only such adjectives as have a real inflection are said to be *compared*. The phrases are supplementary forms taking the place of true inflectional forms, but are not to be mistaken for inflection.

206. Adjectives modified by *less* and *least* form phrases which express degrees of quality below the positive.

207. Irregular Comparison. — When the forms change greatly or entirely, or when there are several forms to express the same degree, the comparison is irregular. The list of irregular adjectives is short.

POSITIVE.	COMPARATIVE.	SUPERLATIVE.
good	better	best
bad or ill	worse	worst
much	more	most
little	less	least
late	later or latter	latest or last
old	older or elder	oldest or eldest
near	nearer	nearest or next

208. Comparative and Superlative Adjectives, whose positive forms are adverbs.

POSITIVE.	COMPARATIVE.	SUPERLATIVE.
forth	further	furthest <i>or</i> furthestmost
far	farther	farthest
fore	former	foremost <i>or</i> first
in	inner	innermost <i>or</i> inmost
out	outer <i>or</i> utter	utmost, outermost, <i>or</i> outmost
up	upper	upmost <i>or</i> uppermost

EXERCISE 27.

Which adjectives are compared? Which form phrases? Which are irregular? Which are invariable?

Strong, feeble, wrong, eternal, merry, immortal, sincere, supreme, beautiful, dreary, true, polite, old, daily, bad, entire, false, hollow, seven, narrow, sad, funny, straight, pretty, new, mean, wild, happy, noble, able, contemptible, such, bright, wide, daily, tall, idle, full, level, fortunate, correct, some.

PARTICIPIAL ADJECTIVES.

209. A Participle is a word which expresses in adjective form the attribute of a verb. Every full verb has two such adjective forms which express an action or condition directly descriptive of some object. These are called participles because they participate or share in the nature of a verb on the one hand, and an adjective on the other. Their resemblance to the adjective is in their use, which is precisely that of any adjective. Their resemblance to the verb lies in the facts, (1) that they usually express *active* attributes, (2) that they are complete or incomplete, just as their verbs are, and consequently require the same complements and modifiers.

Ex. — The man, seeing the child, stepped aside.

210. Forms of Participial Adjectives. — One of the two participles possessed by every verb ends in *ing*, and is called the progressive participle because it invariably expresses continuance of action or condition.

Ex. — Singing, living, doing.

The other ends in *ed* or *en*, if it has any distinctive ending, but it frequently has none.

Ex. — Played, given, done.

This is called the perfect participle, because it always indicates completed, perfected action or condition, and generally action that has been suffered or endured by the object named by its modified noun.

Ex. — A beaten dog is one that has been beaten.

An injured foot is one which has been injured.

211. Number and Importance of this Class. — Participles are as numerous as verbs, and quite as important as any other class of adjectives, yet they are seldom included in a discussion of this part of speech.

EXERCISE 28.

State which participle is used, what it modifies, and what kind of complement it takes, if any.

1. A man, resting by the wayside, found a purse.
2. A bee, busily gathering honey, flew from flower to flower.
3. The window, broken by the explosion, fell with a crash.
4. This is a grinding tyranny.
5. We heard the shouts of delighted children.
6. Hearing a sound, I turned suddenly.
7. This man, having plenty of money, is afraid to use it.
8. The bird, wounded by an arrow, fell into the running stream.
9. A fortress, built on the hillside, defended the road.
10. Being confident of my skill, I accepted the challenge.

QUANTITATIVE ADJECTIVES.

212. Quantitative Adjectives are those that limit the extent of meaning of a noun, by expressing number or quantity.

Ex. — Two books. Some money.

They consist of three classes : —

1. Definite Numerals.
2. Indefinite Quantitatives.
3. Articles.

213. The Numerals are sufficiently described by their name. They include several classes : —

1. Cardinals, or chief number forms, one, two, three.
2. Ordinals, which indicate the order of objects in a series.

Ex. — First, second, third, fourth.

3. Multiplicatives, which show how many times a thing is taken.

Ex. — Three-fold, four-fold.

4. Fractionals, which denote one of the equal parts into which the whole is divided.

Ex. — Half, third, fourth.

NOTE. — These sub-classes are unimportant. Ordinarily it is sufficient to distinguish between definite and indefinite numerals.

214. Substantive Use of Numerals. — All of these words are freely used as substantives, either standing alone or followed by a modifying phrase, introduced by the partitive preposition, *of*.

Ex. — Six of us will go.

When used substantively, the cardinals take plurals like nouns.

Ex. — They came by twos and threes.

215. The Indefinite Quantitatives need only to be pointed out as including the list of indefinite pronouns already given (ARTS. 186, 187). When used to modify nouns, they lose their classification as pronouns and become adjectives. One of them, *many*, combines with *a* to make an idiomatic phrase which modifies a singular noun, though *many* alone is plural.

216. The Articles are *a*, *an*, and *the*. These words are constant accompaniments of nouns, and indicate the greater or less definiteness with which a noun is used.

A, *an*, are the Indefinite Articles. They are broken-down forms of *ane*, an old form of *one*. They mean *one*, *any one*.

Ex. — An apple = any apple.

A is used before consonant sounds; *an*, before vowel sounds.

EXCEPTION. — *An* is properly used before words beginning with *h*, if accented on the second syllable.

The is called the Definite Article. It is a weakened form of the demonstrative *that*, and retains its original definiteness of meaning.

Ex. — The river means that river, a particular river.

217. Position. — In position, the articles precede any other adjectives used to modify a noun.

Ex. — The two prettiest pictures.

In general, the more purely limiting adjectives (the quantitatives and pronominals) precede the pure qualitatives, and a shorter adjective precedes a longer, though logic finally determines the latter point:—

Ex. — Two handsome dresses.
A large handsome house.

but,

My beloved old friend.

218. Possible Confusion of Constructions. — The article *a* should not be confused with a weakened form of the old preposition *on* or *to* in the phrases, Twice *a* week, He went *a* fishing.

The is an adverb of degree in such phrases as, The more the merrier. It is the remains of the old ablative case *thæt*, meaning *by that*.

LOCATIVE ADJECTIVES.

219. A Locative Adjective is one which expresses the place or position of an object.

Ex. — The book there. The book is here.

220. Importance of this Class. — There is no more important characteristic of objects than that of location yet many grammarians have quite overlooked the fact. They apparently teach that *place* is an essential condition of *action*, but not of *objects*; that *actions* must *occur* in *place*, but that *things* do not necessarily *exist* in *place*! The fact is that things are as readily described by their location as by their inherent qualities.

Ex. — The Central School. The last page. The instructions within.

221. Inconsistency of the View which makes Adverbs of these Words. — There is much inconsistency in dealing with the locative idea. All admit that in the sentence, "I saw the house on the hill burning," the phrase *on the hill* is adjective, fixing the location of *house*. But if we *assert* the locative idea, "The house is *there*," or if we merely replace the phrase by a locative word, "I sitting here saw the house *there*," many people construe it as an adverb.

The only Test of an Adjective is its Use. — If, in the expression, "I am —," the verb is a copula, and the statement is lacking until the *whole attribute* is added in an adjective, as "present," — just as truly is the verb a copula, and the entire attribute found in the added word, if we choose to replace *present* by *here, there, in the house*, or any other locative adjective.

222. Examples of pure locative adjectives are: here, there, present, absent, up, upper, down, beyond, western. They are as few in number as are the locative adverbs; but, like them, they are reënforced by a host of phrases which express the idea much more definitely than any one word can do.

Ex. — The Mill on the Floss.

He is in the boat, on the river, in danger.

The glass is on the table.

The little home in the valley.

PRONOMINAL ADJECTIVES.

223. Under this name are included those words which lose their classification as pronouns when they are made to limit nouns.

224. The chief classes are: —

1. Demonstrative adjectives.
2. Interrogative adjectives.
3. Conjunctive adjectives.

The indefinite quantitatives might also be included here; but they are important enough to form, with the numerals, a distinct class.

225. The **Demonstrative Adjectives** are *this*, *that*, with *yon* and *yonder*, not used as pronouns. The first two are the only adjectives which have inflection for number.

226. The **Interrogative Adjectives** are *which* and *what*. They are merely pronouns that have become adjectives by being made to modify expressed nouns. They represent an unknown attribute which is thus inquired for.

Ex. — What hat is that? *Ans.* That is my best hat.

What in the interrogation represents *best* in the declarative answer.

227. **Conjunctive Adjectives.** — When a word which would otherwise be a conjunctive pronoun is made to modify an expressed noun, it becomes a conjunctive adjective. It forms the connective or introductory word of a noun clause, and limits the meaning of some noun contained in it.

Ex. — Do you know what books are needed?

The words oftenest used in this way are: *what*, *which*, *what-ever*, *which-ever*, *whatso-ever*, *whichso-ever*.

CONSTRUCTIONS OF ADJECTIVES.

228. Adjectives, being attributive words, have no existence except in connection with nouns, but the logical relation which the attribute bears to the substantive idea varies greatly, chiefly in the closeness or looseness of connection. The position of the word in the sentence is the sole means of expressing this logical relation, hence, the construction of the adjective becomes a matter of great importance.

229. There are five shades of meaning expressed by the constructions of the adjective, grouped for convenience under three main heads:—

1. Attributive Construction.
2. Appositive Construction.
3. Predicative Construction.
 - a. Attribute Complement.
 - b. Objective Complement.
 - c. Adverbial Complement.

230. The Attributive Construction is that in which the closest possible relation exists between the attribute and the substantive.

This is shown by placing the adjective before the noun, that the attribute may be in mind when the substantive idea is received, and immediately identified with it.

Ex. — A good boy. A hard lesson.

In this construction the attribute becomes a part of the original conception of the object. Of necessity its position is naturally immediately before the noun, but for rhetorical reasons it occasionally follows.

Ex. — Twelve good men and true formed the jury.

231. Punctuation. — A single attributive modifier is never separated from its noun, but the members of a series are separated from each other by commas to show the omission of the conjunction.

Ex. — A large, beautiful, costly vase.

232. The Appositive Adjective. — When an adjective is loosely joined, almost as an afterthought, to a substantive which has a separate existence in the mind, the construction is called appositive. It is the loosest of all constructions, as is shown by the fact that it is usually set off by commas. It resembles the noun in apposition as far as any adjective resembles a noun; i.e., it assumes a single attribute, while a noun assumes a group of attributes large enough to imply a partial identity.

Ex. — All sizes, large and small, are sold here.

This is the principal construction of the participial adjectives.

Ex. — This able general, reënforced by a new regiment, now began the attack.

The position of the appositive adjective differs from that of the noun in apposition in its greater freedom. It is freely thrown with its adjuncts far ahead of its noun, but the looseness of connection is always shown by the punctuation.

Ex. — Hearing a step, I was very much startled.

This freedom of position comes about naturally; for the mind easily detects the relation existing between an action word and the subject of it, even when they are widely separated.

233. The Predicative Construction is that in which the adjective contains the chief attribute of the judgment. It is used only with verbs which lack wholly or partially the attributive element, i.e., the copula, copulative, and transitive-copulative verbs. The different predicative uses are as follows : —

234. The Attribute Complement completes the meaning of the verb, and modifies the subject.

Ex. — The day is (or seems) warm.
John was here.

This is, of course, the most emphatic position of the adjective.

235. The Objective Complement, like the attribute complement, completes the meaning of the verb by adding a lacking attribute ; but that attribute is descriptive of the direct object, and it is named to indicate this fact.

Ex. — The gardener made the walk straight.

It is used with a very few verbs, the transitive-copulatives, which assert a *making*, or *causing*, or *bringing about* of a condition of the direct object which the objective complement specifies.

Though few in number, these verbs are very often used, the chief ones being, make, call, name, choose, elect, constitute.

Grammatically the objective complement follows the direct object, but logically it attaches to the verb before the direct object.

236. The Adverbial Complement. — Sometimes verbs which are usually complete or transitive are used to

connect a further attribute to the subject or object, and yet contain sufficient attributive force in themselves to be modified adverbially.

Ex. — The sun shines bright. I kept the ball rolling.

In these examples *bright* and *rolling* are *both* complementary and adverbial, though their chief functions are as predicate adjectives, *bright* being an attribute complement with some adverbial force, and *rolling* an objective complement with some adverbial force.

When an adjective complement seems to partake also of the nature of an adverb, showing *how* an act is performed, it may be called an adverbial complement.

237. Cautions in the Use of Adjectives.

1. Discriminate between adjectives and adverbs, using the former whenever an attribute of an object is to be expressed.

Ex. — He is comfortable (not nicely), thank you.

2. Use the comparative degree with reference to two, and the superlative with reference to more than two objects.

Ex. — You are the stronger of the two.
He is the wisest of them all.

3. Notice which adjectives admit of comparison, and which require phrases to express varying degrees.

Ex. — This is prettier, but it is more expensive.

DIRECTIONS FOR PARSING ADJECTIVES.

238. In parsing an adjective, state : —

1. The class and sub-class, if sub-divided.
 2. The degree, if qualitative.
 3. The construction.
- 

EXERCISE 29.

Parse the adjectives.

1. Noisiest fountains soonest run dry.
2. Every little incident of that joyous day is remembered.
3. Great is truth and mighty above all things.
4. John Quincy Adams was the sixth President of the United States.
5. The less you have to do with fire-arms the better.
6. Lonely and lovely, a single star
 Lights the air with a dusky glimmer.
7. Build thee more stately mansions, O my soul !
 As the swift seasons roll ;
 Leave the low-vaulted past ;
 Let each new temple, nobler than the last,
 Shut thee from heaven with a dome more vast,
 Till thou at length art free,
 Leaving thy outgrown shell by Life's unresting sea.
8. The guillotine hushed the eloquent, struck down the powerful, and abolished the beautiful and the good.
9. The whispering wind stirred weeping willow and moaning pine.
10. The fleet, shattered and disabled, returned to Spain.
11. We went to live in the adjoining house, fronting the park.
12. I will have the letter posted in the morning.
13. Numerous rich specimens found ready sale at the first and second stands.
14. Full many a flower is born to blush unseen,
 And waste its sweetness on the desert air.
15. Twenty-three choice fruit-trees were destroyed by that sudden gale.
16. To the Druids, the mistletoe, a parasitic, evergreen plant, growing on certain trees, seemed especially sacred.
17. The white and fleecy waves looked soft as carded wool.

CHAPTER IX.

THE VERB.

239. A VERB is a word which asserts an attribute of a subject of thought.

The attribute is usually an *action*, — The horse *runs*.

It may be a *condition*, — The child *seems* well.

It may be *being* or *existence*, — God *is*, and *was*, and ever *shall be*.

This definition virtually excludes the copula, which asserts no attribute until one is supplied, but it will be included in the classification for four reasons: (1) With an added attribute it fulfils all the conditions of the verb; (2) It contains the essential principle of all verbs — assertive power, though in a latent or potential condition; (3) It has the inflectional forms of the verb; (4) It is used as auxiliary in the conjugation of all verbs.

240. The Classification of the verb has been fully discussed in ARTS. 37 and 38. It will be repeated here in summarized form, with the understanding that it has been thoroughly mastered in an earlier stage of the work, and with final emphasis of the fact that a comprehension of the verb and its possibilities is the crucial point in the study of a language, the very foundation upon which valuable knowledge of grammar rests.

241. According to extent of meaning verbs are classified as —

1. Complete.
2. Incomplete.
 - a. Copula.
 - b. Copulative.
 - c. Transitive.
 - d. Transitive-copulative.

242. The Main Classification.

1. *A Complete Verb* is one that asserts an unlimited and clearly understood attribute. Without assistance it forms the bare predicate of the sentence.

Ex. — We travel slowly on warm days.
When we sleep we dream.

2. *An Incomplete Verb* is one whose attribute is lacking or deficient, or too general to make an intelligible predicate.

Ex. — You are strong. (Attribute lacking.)
You look strong. (Attribute deficient.)
You perform your work well. (Attribute requires limitation.)

243. Classification of Incomplete Verbs.

- a. *The Copula*, containing nothing but potential assertive power, couples an attribute found in an adjective or substantive to the subject.

Ex. — The girl is graceful.
It was she.

- b. *The Copulative Verb* contains a vague attribute of condition or appearance which exerts a modifying effect upon the main attribute, which is added in another word. The term means, "somewhat like the copula;" and the verb is so called because its chief work is to couple the second attribute to the subject.

The principal verbs of the class are (a) seem, appear, look, sound, smell, taste, feel, stand, sit, *when they express condition, not motion*; (b) become, grow, get, turn, go, move, run, etc., *when they suggest growth or motion toward a condition, the condition being the principal idea*.

Ex. — I became ill.

He continues faithful.

The door stands open.

He will go mad.

The latter class are obviously the most difficult to recognize, for they approach the meaning of complete verbs, and it sometimes becomes a question as to whether the following word is a complement or a modifier; but the final test of these, as of all copulatives, is, Do they finally assert a characteristic or condition of the subject? It must be borne in mind that most of these verbs are freely used as complete, or transitive verbs, and that they are copulatives only when they have the meanings explained above.

c. *The Transitive Verb* asserts a very general attribute, limited and determined by the substantive that completes it. In most cases the act terminates upon a receiver.

Ex. — That man saws wood

The baby has a toy.

d. *The Transitive-copulative Verb* asserts a second attribute of the direct object, which attribute expresses the effect which the act has produced upon the receiver of it.

Ex. — We will make him responsible for the money.

There are no verbs that belong solely to this class. It consists of transitive verbs used in a causative sense, i.e., in the sense of making or causing or bringing about of a different condition of the direct object. With this meaning, they are more than ordinarily incomplete, and hence require two complements, the object and objective.

244. Review verb complements classified and explained in ART. 39 and Exercises 1 and 2.

INFLECTION OF THE VERB.

245. In most languages the verb is the part of speech most fully inflected, and this was once true of the English. The complexity of an action made this a natural result. To understand it, one wants to know, (1) whether the actor or another reports it; (2) whether one or more actors are engaged; (3) the time of it; (4) whether it actually occurs, or is a mere possibility. The tendency was to pack all these meanings into one word by varying the endings of it. This gave rise to a very large number of forms for each verb.

246. Properties. — The different meanings of the verb expressed by distinct forms of the word were called properties.

247. Usual Number of Properties. — In a well-inflected language, each verb form shows five distinct properties, Person, Number, Tense, Mode, and Voice.

248. Name of the Inflection. — An orderly arrangement of all the forms of the verb which show its different properties is called its conjugation.

249. Amount of Inflection in English. — It has been seen that the English noun has lost all but two of its case forms, the pronoun all but three, the adjective all of its case, number, and gender forms; and we have now to add that there is left but a trace of inflection of the verb. There is no inflection whatever for voice; and no verb has more than three forms, which indicate person, number, and tense.

250. Tense. — Tense is the inflection of the verb to show, (1) the time of an act or condition; (2) the state of the act or condition (as complete or indefinite) at the time mentioned. There are three divisions of time, present, past, and future. The forms of the verb which show merely the time of the act without reference to the state of it are called simple tenses. The forms which show both the time and the state of the act *at the time*, are called compound tenses.

To show all these tense ideas would require six forms, and most languages have this number. No English verb has more than two tense forms as shown by inflection.

Ex. —	I see	I love	<i>Present tense.</i>
	I saw	I loved	<i>Past tense.</i>

The tense inflection is, then, very slight. All other tense ideas are shown by built-up forms called verb-phrases.

251. Meaning of the Present Tense. — The present tense expresses: —

1. The passing moment of time, — The cat sees the bird.
2. Any period which we choose to include with the present, — Things are different now (this century).

3. Generalizations that are true for all time, — Perseverance conquers all things.
4. Future time (as an idiom), — We start to-morrow.
5. Past time (as a rhetorical device for vividness), — At last Napoleon is ready to strike.

252. Meaning of the Past Tense. — The past tense shows an act to have been done in the past, without reference to the moment of its completion.

Ex. — He sat down.

253. Mode, in other languages, is the name given to those changes in the verb-form which indicate varying modes or manners of expression. In Anglo-Saxon and early English, the verb varied its form to show modal ideas; but of mode *as an inflection*, there is in modern English scarcely a trace.

254. Loss of the Subjunctive Mode. — Formerly the “s” form of the verb was exclusively an indicative mode, the simple root being used in the same person and number to express subjunctive ideas.

Ex. — He goes; but, If he go.

But modern English freely employs this form to express doubt or contingency also, —

Ex. — If it rains, I shall stay at home,

thus breaking down entirely the conception of mode as a distinction of form.

255. Lack of Mode in English. — The same form of the verb, the *root*, is now used, whether the manner of expression is a statement of fact, a statement of doubt, or a command.

Ex. — Statement of fact. You love those who love you.
Statement of doubt. If you love children, they will love you.
Command. Love the children.

256. A Trace of Subjunctive Mode in the Verb Be. —
The subjunctive mode of the verb, *be*, may still be used in the present tense to express a doubt, supposition, or an optative idea.

Ex. — If a perpendicular line be drawn.
Thy will be done.

But the indicative forms, *am*, *is*, and *are*, are far more common in these uses.

In the past tense, however, the subjunctive form, *were*, is still required to express a condition implying denial, or a wish.

Ex. — If I were he, I would do so.
I wish I were a child again.

This form, *were*, is the only exception to the statement that the mode cannot be determined by the form; and even it can be determined only by taking the subject into consideration, since it also serves as the plural of the past indicative.

257. If, therefore, we use the term *mode* in English, it must be with the understanding that it refers to *meaning*, not to *form*, and that it is in no real sense a property of verbs.

258. There are naturally as many modes as there are varying manners of expression. The shades of meaning most commonly distinguished are: —

1. The indicative mode, which declares a fact, past, present, or to be.

Ex. — Birds fly. The wind roared. We shall go.

2. The conditional mode, which implies : —

- a. A fact. **Ex.** — If he is a negro, he is intelligent.
- b. A doubt. **Ex.** — If he is wise, he will take advice.
- c. A denial. **Ex.** — If he were wise, he would take advice.

3. The potential mode, which implies power, permission, or possibility.

Ex. — I may go. You may go.

4. The obligative mode, which implies obligation or duty.

Ex. — I ought to go.

5. The imperative mode, which expresses the various shades of meaning which lie between the entreaty of an inferior and the command of a superior.

Ex. — Give us this day our daily bread. (Entreaty.)
 Give me some of your pretty roses. (Request.)
 Close the door as you pass through. (Command.)

259. The mode of expression is shown : —

1. By arrangement of elements.

Ex. — I see a cloud.

Indicative mode, shown by order of subject and predicate.

2. By connectives.

Ex. — If you see my book, bring it to me.

Conditional mode, shown by connective *if*.

3. By auxiliary.

Ex. — If you would live long, be cheerful.

Conditional mode, shown by the auxiliary *would*.

4. By omission of subject.

Ex. — Obey your parents.

Imperative mode.

260. Number and Person in Other Languages.

Most languages have an extensive inflection of the verb by which the person and number of the subject are indicated. These changes indicate no differences of meaning in the verb attribute, but are simply a matter of agreement with the subject. The inflection is very significant, however, as it exhibits the verb as the ruling element in the expression of thought, it having power to draw to itself even certain attributes of the subject, and so to suggest that element.

In the Latin, the verb alone expresses the entire judgment, and needs no expressed subject, owing to its implication of person and number in the inflected form.

Ex. — Sum = I am. Amo = I love.

261. Person and Number in English. — In early English the verb had a considerable inflection for these properties; but at present, in the whole conjugation of the verb, there are but three forms which show the person and number of the subject, and but one of these is in common use.

262. A subject of the third person, singular number, requires in the present tense a verb formed by adding “s” to the root.

Ex. — Tells.

This form is called “the third person, singular, of the present tense,” or simply the “s form.”

263. The grave form “thou,” as subject, requires in the present tense a verb formed by adding *st* or *est* to the root.

Ex. — Tellest.

This form is called the “grave form, second person, singular, of the present tense.”

The same subject requires in the past tense a verb formed by adding *st* or *est* to the simple past tense of the verb.

Ex. — Toldst.

This form is called the “grave form, second person, singular, of the past tense.”

264. With subjects of any other person or number, the root form is used in the present tense, and the simple past form in the past tense.

Ex. — I, you, we, they love.

I, you, he, we, they loved

EXERCISE 30.

Give the person, number, tense, and mode of each verb and verb-phrase. State how the mode is determined.

1. I always study in the mornings.
2. They heard beautiful music.
3. If you were there, nobody saw you.
4. Be quiet.
5. If ye love me, keep my commandments.
6. Thou, God, seest me.
7. If it is true, you need not have published it.
8. If he accuse me, I will defend myself.
9. He felt the wind on his cheek.
10. I am sorry for you.
11. If I were he, I would do differently.
12. The weaver sits at his loom.
13. If it rain to-morrow, I shall stay at home.
14. Then came the laborers from the field.
15. Speak clearly, if you speak at all.
16. If I am a Roman, I am ashamed of Rome.
17. Love not sleep, lest thou come to poverty.
18. Be it ever so humble, there's no place like home.

19. If there be a policeman in the house, let him come forward.
 20. If time be of all things the most precious, then wasting time is the greatest prodigality.
 21. If I be in the wrong, I will confess it.
 22. I wish I were a boy again.
 23. Stand! the ground's your own, my braves.
 24. If it were so, I would have told you.
 25. If my brother *is* old, he *is* still active.

265. Verbals. — Besides the asserting forms already described, every principal verb forms by derivation, rather than inflection, two sets of words called participles and infinitives. These words are classed together as verbals, because they are derived from verbs, and retain much of the nature of the verb. Although they are not true verbs, they are included in the conjugation because they enter into the verb-phrases which form the larger part of the conjugation, with the value of adjectives and nouns.

266. Verbals Compared with Verbs. — Verbals resemble verbs in three respects: —

1. They contain the same general attributes.
2. They are complete or incomplete, just as their verbs are, hence require the same complements.
3. Being verbal in nature, they require the same modifiers — adverbs.

They differ in three respects: —

1. They *assume*, never *assert*, their attributes.
2. They are used respectively as adjectives and nouns, never as predicates.
3. They *usually* differ in form.

Ex. — The bird, seeing me suddenly, flew away.
 To do his work well was his desire.

Compare these verbals with the following verbs, and point out all resemblances and differences:—

Ex.—The bird **saw** suddenly me.
He does his work **well**.

267. Participles are verbal adjectives. They are of two classes:—

1. *The Progressive Participle*, formed by adding *ing* to the root, which always expresses continuance or incompleteness.

Ex.—Going, riding, singing.

2. *The Perfect Participle*, which ends in *ed*, *t*, or *en*, or has no distinctive ending, and which indicates perfected action, being, or state:—

Ex.—Loved, given, sung.

The meaning of the name *participle* has been given in ART. 209.

268. The Infinitives are verbal nouns. They are of two classes:—

1. *The Root Infinitive*, which is the simplest form of the verb, and is usually distinguished from the asserting form by having *to* prefixed as a sign.

Ex.—To love, to go.

2. *The Gerund*, which is always formed by adding *ing* to the root, and which therefore looks precisely like the progressive participle, but differs wholly in origin, meaning, and use.

Ex.—Loving, giving, singing.

These two forms had once entirely different endings. The participial ending was *ende* or *inde*. The gerund *is the* remains of an abstract noun ending in *ung*,

which (probably by confusion with the root-infinitive) gradually lost its pure substantive nature, and became the equivalent of the infinitive, even to the taking of an object and adverbial modifiers.

Time has changed the spelling of both endings to *ing*, destroying the distinction of *form*, but not of *use*.

The *participle in ing* expresses a modifying attribute of a noun.

Ex. — Crossing the river, he went on his way.

The progressive participle, *crossing*, modifies *he*.

The *infinitive in ing* names an actual thing, — an action or condition.

Ex. — In crossing the stream, he wet his feet.

The gerund, *crossing*, names an act, and is the object of the preposition *in*.

269. The Term Infinitive means “unlimited.” It is so called because it is usually used without an expressed subject to name a general or unlimited action or condition.

Ex. — To go would be pleasant.

But, as will be seen later, it *may* have an expressed subject; and, when so accompanied, its name loses its force.

EXERCISE 31.

Distinguish between infinitives and participles, giving the constructions of each.

1. The boys were accused of breaking windows and doing other mischief.
2. Drawing and painting taught here without extra charge.
3. I saw a man breaking stones on the sidewalk.
4. Seeing is believing.

5. Seeing a crowd on the street, he ran to the door.
6. You are punished for breaking your promise.
7. The face once seen, is never forgotten.
8. Taught by that power that pities me, I pity them.
9. They had exercises in running, wrestling, and playing ball.
10. The design, drawn and painted by hand, was greatly admired.
11. A man, resting by the roadside, found a purse.
12. It is human nature to take delight in exciting admiration.
13. The good king, betrayed by his enemies, fled to his castle.
14. Hastily drawing a sketch, he presented it.
15. Will you teach me to draw ?
16. The bee, busily gathering honey, flew from flower to flower.
17. Great skill was shown in selecting and polishing these stones.
18. To waste time in youth is to want in age.
19. We find true pleasure in doing duty.
20. The little bird was too weak to stand.

THE CONJUGATIONS OF THE VERB.

270. English verbs are divided, according to the ways in which they form their past tense and perfect participle, into two classes, called the new and the old conjugations.

271. Characteristics of the New Conjugation. — Verbs of this class form their past tense and perfect participle alike by adding *d* or *ed* to the root.

Ex. — Obey.

obeyed.

obeyed.

272. Origin of the New Conjugation Ending. — The *ed* is the remains of the verb *did*, which in an early period of the language was added to such verbs as had no internal change to denote past time.

Ex. — I love did.

This did very well as a sign of past action ; but in time it dwindled to *ed*, and became a mere suffix, *though* with the original meaning.

The *ed* is thus actually a *newer* method of showing tense, and most Latin or French verbs since added to the language have been made to form their past tense in this way.

273. The Characteristics of the Old Conjugation are three.

1. A change of vowel of the present to form the past tense.
2. No added ending to the past tense.
3. The addition of *n* or *en* to form the perfect participle.

The vowel of the perfect participle may be the same as the present, the same as the past tense, or it may be different from either.

Ex. — Give	gave	given.
Speak	spoke	spoken.
Fly	flew	flown.

274. This is called the old conjugation because it is actually the oldest method of showing past tense; its verbs are the oldest of the language, — the strong, simple, one-syllabled verbs of our Anglo-Saxon forefathers.

NOTE. — The new conjugation is sometimes called the *weak*, and the old, the *strong*, conjugation.

275. The Principal Parts of a Verb are those forms which we must know in order to build up the conjugation. They are: —

1. The Simple Form, used
 - a. As Root Infinitive.
 - b. As Imperative Mode.

- c. As Present Subjunctive, all persons and numbers.
 d. As Present Indicative, plural and first person singular.

2. The Past Tense.
3. Progressive Participle.
4. Perfect Participle.

It is common to omit the progressive participle, because it is always made by adding *ing* to the root.

276. The Simple and Inflected Forms of the New Conjugation.

Principal Parts, *love, loved, loved.*

INDICATIVE MODE.

PRESENT TENSE.

PERS.	SINGULAR.	,	PERS.	PLURAL.
1.	I love		1.	we love
2.	you love		2.	you love
	thou lovest			
3.	he loves (loveth)		3.	they love

PAST TENSE.

PERS.	SINGULAR.		PERS.	PLURAL.
1.	I loved		1.	we loved
2.	you loved		2.	you loved
	thou lovedst			
3.	he loved		3.	they loved

INFINITIVES.

Root Infinitive, to love
Gerund, loving

PARTICIPLES.

Progressive, loving
Perfect, loved

277. Notice how many and what different forms a new conjugation verb has.

278. Simple and Inflected Forms of the Old Conjugation.

Principal Parts, Take, took, taken.

INDICATIVE MODE.

PRESENT TENSE.

PERS.	SING.	PERS.	PLURAL.
1.	I take	1.	we take
2.	you take	2.	you take
	thou takest		
3.	he takes	3.	they take

PAST TENSE.

1.	I took	1.	we took
2.	you took	2.	you took
	thou tookest		
3.	he took	3.	they took

INFINITIVES.

<i>Root Infinitive,</i>	to take
<i>Gerund,</i>	taking

PARTICIPLES.

<i>Progressive,</i>	taking
<i>Perfect,</i>	taken

279. Persistence of the Subjunctive Mode in Literature. — The above scheme includes all the forms *required* in modern English. We frequently find, however, in written discourse, the root-form of the verb, used with a subject of the third person, singular number, in clauses expressing doubt.

Ex. — If he love me, he will hear my words.

This is the remains of the old-time distinction of mode, and the form may be characterized as a subjunctive mode.

280. Summary of Facts as to the Inflection of the Verb. — The verb has a mere trace of inflection for three properties, tense, person, and number. The tense inflection is confined to two forms, while a well-inflected language possesses six. Omitting the irreg-

ular verb *be*, there are but *three* forms which indicate person and number, — *the second, singular, present and past tenses* in the grave form, and the *third, singular, present tense*. In the ordinary conjugation there is but *one* form, the *third, singular, present tense*, which shows these properties. In all other places, throughout the three so-called modes, the root-form is used in the present, and the past indicative in the past tense. Where this is true, the person and number must be determined by the subject, and the mode as indicated in ART. 259.

The copula *be* is an exception, in that it has a present and a past subjunctive form, and an imperative different from the indicative.

281. Regular and Irregular Verbs. — A regular verb is one which conforms in all respects to the conjugation to which it belongs.

An irregular verb is one which lacks one or more characteristics of its conjugation.

Ex. — Flee, fled, is irregular of the new conjugation, because its vowel sound changes in the past tense. Bind, bound, bound, is irregular of the old conjugation because its past participle has lost its *en* ending.

282. Origin of Irregularities. — In the development of the language many irregularities have crept in. The general tendency seems to have been to change the vowel so as to form the past tense and perfect participle alike. This resembles the new conjugation method, and many verbs have come over entirely to this class.

Ex. — Cleave, cleaved.

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But, on the other hand, many which were once new conjugation verbs are now of the old.

Ex. — Dig, dug.

Some verbs seem to be yet in course of transition. These present characteristics of both classes, and can be classified only by authority, a knowledge of the early history of the words being necessary to the decision.

IRREGULARITIES OF THE NEW CONJUGATION.

283. The irregularities of the new conjugation may be grouped under three heads: —

1. Words in which the *ed* may be shortened to a *t*, or retained naturally.

Ex. — Dress, dressed, or drest; pass, passed, or past.

One cause of this irregularity is that in many words the *ed* is pronounced as *t*, and, by analogy, others not so pronounced have come to be formed like them.

2. Words in which the *vowel sound* is shortened with or without the change of *ed* to *t*.

Ex. — Feel, felt; flee, fled.

3. Words which have lost all ending, the three forms being now alike.

Ex. — Burst, burst; cut, cut; put, put.

284. Scattered Irregularities.

1. The new conjugation verbs most difficult to recognize are those in which a vowel sound in the present has changed to a diphthong in the past.

Ex. — Buy, bought; beseech, besought.

But the *t* ending shows the words to be of the new conjugation.

2. *Sell* and *tell* change the vowel in the past, but add the new conjugation ending *d*.
3. *Have*, *make*, and *clothe* lose in the past the final consonant of the root:—

Ex.—Past : had, made (maked), clad.

Have loses the *v* in the second and third persons singular also:—

Ex.—Hast, has.

4. *Need* has either *need* or *needs* as third person singular indicative.

285.

ALPHABETICAL LIST OF IRREGULAR NEW CONJUGATION VERBS.

PRESENT.	PAST.	PAST PARTICIPLE.
bend	bent	bent
bereave	bereft	bereft
beseech	besought	besought
bleed	bled	bled
blend	blent	blent
breed	bred	bred
bring	brought	brought
build	built	built
burn	burnt	burnt
buy	bought	bought
cast	cast	cast
catch	caught	caught
cleave (split)	cleft	cleft
clothe	clad (clothed)	clad (clothed)
cost	cost	cost
creep	crept	crept
cut	cut	cut
deal	dealt	dealt
dream	dreamt	dreamt
dwell	dwelt	dwelt

PRESENT.

feed
 feel
 gild
 gird
 grave
 have
 hear
 hew
 hide
 hurt
 keep
 kneel
 knit
 lay
 lead
 lean
 learn
 leap
 leave
 lend
 let
 light
 lose
 make
 mean
 meet
 pay
 pen
 put
 rap (to transport)
 read
 rend
 rid
 rive
 say
 saw
 seek
 sell
 send
 set

PAST.

fed
 felt
 gilt (gilded)
 girt
 graved
 had
 heard
 hewed
 hid
 hurt
 kept
 knelt
 knit
 laid
 led
 leant
 learnt
 leapt
 left
 lent
 let
 lit (lighted)
 lost
 made
 meant
 met
 paid
 pent (penned)
 put
 rapt
 read
 rent
 rid
 rived
 said
 sawed
 sought
 sold
 sent
 set

PAST PARTICIPLE.

fed
 felt
 gilt (gilded)
 girt
 graven (graved)
 had
 heard
 hewed (hewn)
 hidden (hid)
 hurt
 kept
 knelt
 knit
 laid
 led
 leant
 learnt
 leapt
 left
 lent
 let
 lit (lighted)
 lost
 made
 meant
 met
 paid
 pent
 put
 rapt
 read
 rent
 rid
 riven (rived)
 said
 sawed (sawn)
 sought
 sold
 sent
 set

PRESENT.	PAST.	PAST PARTICIPLE.
shave	shaved	shaved (shaven)
shear	sheared	sheared (shorn)
shed	shed	shed
shoe	shod	shod
show	showed	shown (showed)
shred	shred	shred
shut	shut	shut
sleep	slept	slept
slit	slit	slit
sow	sowed	sown (sowed)
speed	sped	sped
spell	spelt	spelt
spend	spent	spent
spill	spilt	spilt
spit	spit	spit
split	split	split
spread	spread	spread
strew (strow)	strewed	strewed
sweat	sweat	sweat
sweep	swept	swept
swell	swelled	swelled (swollen)
teach	taught	taught
tell	told	told
think	thought	thought
thrust	thrust	thrust
tie	tied	tied (tight)
weep	wept	wept
wend	wended or went	wended
wet	wet	wet
work	wrought	wrought
	worked	worked

OLD CONJUGATION VERBS.

286. The irregularities of the old conjugation are so many and so difficult to account for that no attempt will be made to distinguish between regular and irregular verbs of this class; but it should be noted that

the commonest irregularity consists in the loss of the *n* ending of the perfect participle.

Ex. — Bind, bound, bound (once bounden).

287. The following is an alphabetical list of old conjugation verbs. (A verb not found here or in ART. 285, may be confidently classed as a regular new conjugation verb.)

ALPHABETICAL LIST OF OLD CONJUGATION VERBS.

PRESENT.	PAST.	PAST PARTICIPLE.
abide	abode	abode
arise	arose	arisen
awake	awoke (awaked)	awoke (awaked)
bear (bring forth)	bore	born
bear (carry)	bore	borne
beat	beat	beaten
begin	began	begun
behold	beheld	beheld (beholden)
bid	bade, bid	bidden, bid
bind	bound	bound
bite	bit	bitten, bit
blow	blew	blown
break	broke	broken
burst	burst	burst
chide	chid	chidden, chid
choose	chose	chosen
cleave (split)	clove	cloven
climb	climbed (clomb)	(climbed)
cling	clung	clung
come	came	come
crow	crew (crowed)	crowed (crown)
dig	dug	dug
do	did	done
draw	drew	drawn
drink	drank	drunk, drunken
drive	drove	driven
eat	ate	eaten
fall	fell	fallen

142 THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE AND ITS GRAMMAR

PRESENT.	PAST.	PAST PARTICIPLE.
fight	fought	fought
find	found	found
fling	flung	flung
fly	flew	flown
forbear	forbore	forborne
forget	forgot	forgotten
forsake	forsook	forsaken
freeze	froze	frozen
get	got	got, gotten
give	gave	given
go	went	gone
grind	ground	ground
grow	grew	grown
hang	hung (hanged)	hung, hanged
hold	held	held
know	knew	known
lie	lay	lain
ride	rode	ridden
ring	rang	rung
rise	rose	risen
run	ran	run
see	saw	seen
seethe	sod (seethed)	sodden
shake	shook	shaken
shine	shone	shone
shoot	shot	shot
shrink	shrank	shrunk
sing	sung (sang)	sung
sink	sunk (sank)	sunk, sunken
sit	sat	sat
slay	slew	slain
slide	slid	slid
sling	slung	slung
slink	slunk	slunk
smite	smote	smitten
speak	spoke	spoken
spin	spun	spun
spring	sprung (sprang)	sprung
stand	stood	stood
stave	stove	stoved

PRESENT.	PAST.	PAST PARTICIPLE.
steal	stole	stolen
stick	stuck	stuck
sting	stung	stung
stink	stank	stunk
stride	strode	stridden
strike	struck	struck
string	strung	strung
strive	strove	striven
swear	swore	sworn
swim	swam	swum
swing	swung	swung
take	took	taken
tear	tore	torn
thrive	throve (thrived)	thriven (thrived)
throw	threw	thrown
tread	trod	trodden, trod
wake	woke (wake)	waked
wear	wore	worn
weave	wove	woven
win	won	won
wind	wound	wound
wring	wrung	wrung
write	wrote	written

288. Conjugation of the Verb *Be*.—*Be* is at once the most important and the most irregular verb in the language. Its parts come from three different roots: *am* is Anglo-Saxon; *are* was introduced by the Danes; and *was* is the past tense of the old verb *wesan*, *to be*.

Principal Parts, *be, was, been*.

PRESENT TENSE.

INDICATIVE.			SUBJUNCTIVE.		
1.	am	are	1.	be	be
2.	art	are	2.	be	be
3.	is	are	3.	be	be

PAST TENSE.

1.	was	were	1.	were	were
2.	wast (wert)	were	2.	wert (were)	were
3.	was	were	3.	were	were

IMPERATIVE.

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
be (thou)	be (ye)

INFINITIVES.

to be
being

PARTICIPLES.

being
been

289. Auxiliary Verbs. — There are six words which were once principal verbs, but which have come to be used only in “helping out” the conjugation of other verbs. For this reason, they are called auxiliary or helping verbs. They are *may*, *can*, *shall*, *will*, *must*, and *ought*. To this list of pure auxiliaries must be added three others, *be*, *have*, and *do*, which are much used as auxiliaries, although they are also principal verbs having the regular inflection of any verb.

290. The Pure Auxiliaries are very incomplete, transitive verbs, which are always completed by a substantive — the root-infinitive, used as direct object.

Ex. — I ought to go.

The sign of the infinitive is now omitted after all auxiliaries except *ought*.

Ex. — I must (to) go. I will (to) go.

291. Inflection of the Auxiliaries. — The auxiliaries have no inflection for the third person, singular, no infinitives nor participles, and *must* and *ought* have no *past tense*. *May*, *can*, *shall*, *will*, and *ought* take the

grave endings in the second person singular, — *mayest, canst, shalt, wilt, oughtest*. Their so-called past tenses have also grave forms, — *mightest, couldst, shouldst, wouldst*.

292. Tense Meanings of the Auxiliaries. — *May, can, shall, and will* were once present tenses; and their old pasts were *might, could, should, would*. *Must* and *ought* were the past tenses of *mote* and *owe*. These tense meanings are now either changed or lost, so that only confusion arises from the use of the words present or past in connection with them.

293. Present Meaning of the Auxiliaries.

1. *Shall* and *will* are used only as signs of future time in the indicative mode.

The other auxiliaries express modal rather than tense ideas, and there should be no attempt to give them tense names.

2. *Should* and *would* usually express conditional ideas, and are called the Conditional Auxiliaries.
3. *May* and *might, can* and *could*, express potential ideas, and are called the Potential Auxiliaries. *May* and *might* express possibility or permission. *Can* and *could* express ability or power.

May and *can* are used: —

- a. To follow principal verbs in the present tense.

Ex. — She says I may go.
She says she can go.

- b. To express an indefinite future time.

Ex. — I may go (to-morrow).
I can do it (any time).

296. Progressive Phrases. — A progressive phrase is composed of a progressive participle and some tense of the auxiliary *be*. It expresses progressive action at the time indicated by the auxiliary.

Ex. — I am reading. I shall be reading.

The auxiliary being a copula, the participle is of course an attribute complement modifying the subject. It should not be analyzed (as it would be if a pure adjective were used: **Ex.** — “I am sorry”), because it is regarded as a substitute for “I *read*,” and as a distinct form in the conjugation of the verb *read*. These progressive phrases are used throughout the active conjugation.

297. Emphatic Phrases. — An emphatic phrase is composed of the present or past tense of the transitive auxiliary *do*, and the root infinitive of a principal verb used as its direct object. I *do work* means I perform (the act of) working. As the name indicates, it is simply a more emphatic way of stating a fact than the indefinite present, — I *work*. Emphatic phrases are used only in the present and past tenses of the indicative mode, and in the imperative.

298. Idiomatic Uses of the Auxiliary Do. — *Do* is used idiomatically: —

1. To form an Interrogative Phrase.

Ex. — Do you see the bird ?

2. To form a Negative Phrase.

Ex. — I do not see the bird.

where other languages express the question by inversion of the subject, — See you the bird? and the negative by the use of the adverb, — I see not the bird.

299. The Future Phrase. — The future verb phrase is composed of the transitive auxiliary *shall* or *will* and the root infinitive of the principal verb, used as its direct object. The fact that the sign of the infinitive is not expressed should not lead to its confusion with the present tense, which is *never* used in a verb phrase. This is commonly called the future tense of the verb, but it is more exact to call it the *future phrase*.

300. Distinction Between Shall and Will. — The peculiar uses of *shall* and *will* depend upon their original meanings. *Shall* meant “to owe,” *to be under obligation to do*; and it came naturally to be used as the sign of a future act in the first person, because one generally *does* what he *owes to do*.

Ex. — I shall go (because I ought to).

In the same way, in the second and third persons it expresses obligation or authority of the speaker, exerted upon the person spoken *to* or *of*. “You shall go,” “He shall go,” mean “I shall force you or him to go.”

Will meant determination, and is still used in the first person to indicate shades of that meaning — determination, promise, agreement.

Ex. — I will go with you.

To indicate mere futurity in the second and third persons, *will* is used as being more courteous than *shall*. It is better form to presume that the person spoken to

or of does the act of his own will, — *You will go*, than to imply your determination to force him by using *shall*, — *You shall go*.

301. General Laws for the Use of Shall and Will.

1. To denote futurity, use *shall* in the first person and *will* in the second and third persons.
2. To denote determination on the part of the speaker, use *will* in the first person and *shall* in the second and third persons.
3. In a question, use the word that is expected in reply.

For example, if you are asking as to the probability of a future act, you say, “Shall you go to the opera this evening?” because you expect the answer, “I shall, or shall not.” If you ask for the purpose of moving the *will* of the person addressed, you say, “Will you go with me to the opera?” because you expect the promise or declination, “I will, or will not.”

4. Only *shall* is permissible in questions where the subject is of the first person. Why?
5. *Should* and *would* follow the fortunes of their old-time presents.

Ex. — Should you go if he came? I would go if I could get away.

Except that in dependent clauses of condition, *should* is used with all persons.

Ex. — If you and I should be called away, and he should be taken sick, who would do the work?

302. The Perfect Tense Phrases. — The only way of expressing in English the *completion of an act* is by forming an idiomatic phrase composed of some tense of

the auxiliary *have* and the perfect participle of a principal verb.

Ex. — I have finished the work.

This phrase is idiomatic because there is no law of the language by which a transitive verb can be completed by an adjective (participial) element.

We cannot analyze this phrase as it stands, but by tracing its origin we can see how so anomalous a construction came to have a definite meaning.

303. Origin of the Perfect Phrase. — Perfect phrases are a comparatively recent addition to the language. Before they were used, the idea of a completed action was expressed by a transitive-copulative verb, completed by a direct object which was modified by a perfect participle.

Ex. — I have the letter finished.

By degrees the participle was associated with the verb until *have finished* became an indivisible unit, and *letter* came to be regarded, not as the object of the verb *have*, but as the object of the transitive verb phrase *have finished*.

This idiomatic phrase is now used with *all* verbs, whether transitive or complete.

Ex. — He has gone.

304. The Forms of the Auxiliary. — The forms of *have* used in making perfect phrases are: —

<i>The present tense,</i>	have
<i>The past tense,</i>	had
<i>The future phrase,</i>	shall have.

The phrase is called present perfect, past perfect, or future perfect, according to the tense of auxiliary used.

Ex. —	<i>Present perfect,</i>	I have finished.
	<i>Past perfect,</i>	I had finished.
	<i>Future perfect,</i>	I shall have finished.

305. The Present Perfect Phrase expresses the completion of an act at the present time.

Ex. — I have hurt my finger (now).

306. The Past Perfect Phrase expresses the completion of an act at or previous to some past time expressed or implied somewhere else in the sentence.

Ex. — I had finished the work when he came.

307. The Future Perfect Tense expresses the completion of an act by or before some definite future time expressed or implied somewhere else in the sentence.

Ex. — I shall have finished the work when you come.

EXERCISE 32.

Indicate verb phrases. Name and explain the composition of each.

1. It had rained all day.
2. Hast thou not heard me ?
3. Who will help you now ?
4. The people shall hear me.
5. I do not aim to please myself.
6. I hope you will be happy.
7. He has bought a horse.
8. Ye will not have lived in vain.
9. He does try to be still.
10. Shall we take a walk ?
11. He does not cheat if they do say so.
12. A strange bird was soaring overhead.

13. I am waiting for the train.
14. You have worked while I have rested.
15. I did not think to shed a tear.
16. Will he have returned by six o'clock ?
17. You had sung that song before.
18. The troops were already marching.
19. Somewhere the birds are singing evermore.
20. Who has had my knife ?

CONDITIONAL, POTENTIAL, AND OBLIGATIVE PHRASES.

308. All the forms of the indicative mode have now been explained ; but there are certain phrases which seem to take the place of modes for which we have no inflection, and form an important part of the conjugation.

These phrases are named according to the ideas they convey ; and they must not be confused with phrases of the indicative mode which state only facts, actual or to be.

The phrases, "I would go," "I may go," "I ought to go," all express possible or probable or desirable acts, but there is no certainty that any of them will ever be performed. They are outside of the realm of fact, and therefore of the indicative mode. They are often used to supplement the subjunctive mode, —

If you were so fortunate = If you *should be* so fortunate ; but they differ from it in that they *may* also express condition in independent clauses.

Ex. — I should do differently if I were you.

309. **Conditional Phrases** are those composed of the auxiliaries *should*, *would*, *might*, or *could* combined with the root infinitive used as object. They express condition.

Ex. — I should go if I could get away.

Would sometimes expresses custom.

Ex. — He would wander about aimlessly.

In this use it has really the force of an indicative mode.

Should sometimes expresses obligation.

Ex. — He should know better.

310. Potential Phrases are those composed of the auxiliaries *may*, *can*, *might*, or *could*, completed by the root infinitive used as object. They express possibility, permission, power, or in general, potentiality, and are named accordingly.

Ex. — I may see you.

311. Obligative Phrases are composed of the auxiliaries *must*, *should*, *ought*, completed by the root infinitive used as object. They express obligation or necessity.

Ex. — You must go.

312. Conditional, Potential, and Obligative Perfect Phrases are made by using as auxiliary the corresponding phrases of the verb *have*, and a perfect participle.

Ex. — *Conditional Perfect.* I should or would have finished.

Potential Perfect. I may, can, might, or could have finished.

Obligative Perfect. I must, should, or ought to have finished.

313. Infinitive and Participial Phrases. — It has been seen that the verb *be* as auxiliary, completed by a progressive participle, always makes a progressive verb phrase, and that the verb *have* completed by a perfect participle always makes a perfect verb phrase.

Notice now that by using the infinitive and participial forms of these auxiliaries with the participles of other

verbs, a set of progressive and perfect *verbal* phrases is made, whose uses are the same as the simple verbals, but with the added meaning of progression or completion:

314. Root Infinitive Phrases.

	COMMON FORM.	PROGRESSIVE.
<i>Simple.</i>	to love	to be loving
<i>Perfect.</i>	to have loved	to have been loving

315. Gerund and Participial Phrases.

	COMMON FORM.	PROGRESSIVE.
<i>Simple.</i>	loving	(itself progressive)
<i>Perfect.</i>	having loved	having been loving

316. A Synopsis is a shortened form of conjugation, showing all the modes and tenses of the verb in a single person and number. The conjugation includes all the modes and tenses in all persons and numbers, whether shown by simple, inflected, or compound forms; but since there is so little inflection for person and number, an example of each mode and tense in a single person and number is all that is necessary to show an understanding of the entire conjugation.

Active Synopsis of the Verb.

Principal Parts, love, loved, loved.

INDICATIVE MODE.

TENSE.	COMMON FORMS.	PROGRESSIVE FORMS.
<i>Pres.</i>	love	am loving
<i>Pres. Emph.</i>	do love	
<i>Past.</i>	loved	was loving
<i>Past Emph.</i>	did love	
<i>Future.</i>	shall or will love	shall or will be loving
<i>Pres. Perf.</i>	have loved	have been loving
<i>Past. Perf.</i>	had loved	had been loving
<i>Future Perf.</i>	shall or will have loved	shall or will have been lov- ing

CONDITIONAL PHRASES.

TENSE	COMMON FORMS.	PROGRESSIVE FORMS.
<i>Simple.</i>	should or would love	should or would be loving
<i>Perfect.</i>	should or would have loved	should or would have been loving

POTENTIAL PHRASES.

<i>Simple.</i>	may, can, might, or could love	may, can, might, or could be loving
<i>Perfect.</i>	may, can, might, or could have loved	may, can, might, or could have been loving

OBLIGATIVE PHRASES.

<i>Simple.</i>	must, should, or ought to love	must, should, or ought to be loving
<i>Perfect.</i>	must, should, or ought to have loved	must, should, or ought to have been loving

INFINITIVES.

	ROOT-INFINITIVE.	GERUND.
<i>Simple.</i>	to love	loving
<i>Prog.</i>	to be loving	
<i>Perfect.</i>	to have loved	having loved
<i>Perf. Prog.</i>	to have been loving	having been loving

PARTICIPLES.

<i>Simple Prog.</i>	loving
<i>Simple Perf.</i>	loved
<i>Perf. Phrase.</i>	having loved
<i>Perf. Prog.</i>	having been loving

EXERCISE 33.

Name and explain the structure of every verb phrase, and name and give the noun or adjective construction of each verbal and verbal phrase.

1. He wishes to see you.
2. We might have ridden.
3. You must have been dreaming.
4. I expected to have seen you earlier.
5. You would smile if you could see your own face.

6. She said she would come if it would please me.
7. The child was thought to be dying.
8. The sight of his suffering was enough to have moved the sternest heart.
9. Ought he to have been working at this time ?
10. If it would not be too much trouble, I should like you to help me.
11. Having been waiting so long, I was very tired.
12. After receiving the message, I left at once.
13. You may have been giving too much time to play.
14. She might have gone earlier if she had spoken.
15. Can she have made a mistake in this matter ?
16. It would have been well to inform yourself as to the facts.
17. By the end of the week I shall have received five dollars.
18. Having been invited to speak, he improved the opportunity.
19. If he can play on the violin, he may practise on mine.
20. You can do many things which you may not do.

THE PASSIVE CONJUGATION

317. Passive Phrases. — The natural receiver of an act is expressed by the object of a transitive verb.

Ex. — I struck the dog.

When we wish, for any reason, to emphasize the receiver of the act, we may do so by making it the subject of the sentence, provided we change the predicate so that it represents the subject still as the receiver of the act.

Ex. — The dog was struck by me.

This is done by forming a phrase of some tense of the copula *be*, completed by a perfect participle used as attribute complement. This is called a *passive phrase*, because it represents the subject, not as *acting*, but as being acted upon. The term *passive* means *suffering* or *enduring*.

318. No Inflection for Voice.—Many languages express the passivity of the subject by a full inflection of the verb. It is then properly a property of the verb, and is called the Passive Voice, and the active forms are named, in distinction, the Active Voice. Since we have no inflection whatever for this idea, the passive conjugation being composed entirely of verb phrases, it can scarcely be called a property of the simple verb. If the term “voice” be used at all, it should be with the understanding that it is not a property in the sense that tense is. The term *passive phrase* answers every purpose.

319. The Passive Synopsis of the Verb.

INDICATIVE.

TENSE.	COMMON FORMS.	PROGRESSIVE FORMS.
<i>Pres.</i>	am loved	am being loved
<i>Past.</i>	was loved	was being loved
<i>Future.</i>	shall or will be loved	
<i>Pres. Perf.</i>	have been loved	
<i>Past Perf.</i>	had been loved	
<i>Future Perf.</i>	shall have been loved	

SUBJUNCTIVE.

<i>Pres.</i>	be loved
<i>Past.</i>	were loved
<i>Pres. Perf.</i>	have been loved
<i>Past Perf.</i>	had been loved

CONDITIONAL.

<i>Simple.</i>	should, would, might, or could be loved
<i>Perf.</i>	should, would, might, or could have been loved

POTENTIAL.

<i>Simple.</i>	may, can, might, or could be loved
<i>Perf.</i>	may, can, might, or could have been loved

OBLIGATIVE.	
TENSE.	COMMON FORMS.
<i>Simple.</i>	must, should, or ought to be loved
<i>Perf.</i>	must, should, or ought to have been loved
IMPERATIVE.	
<i>Pres.</i>	be loved
INFINITIVE.	
<i>Root.</i>	to be loved
<i>Perf. Root.</i>	to have been loved
<i>Gerund.</i>	being loved
<i>Perf. Gerund.</i>	having been loved
PARTICIPLES.	
<i>Simple Perf.</i>	loved
<i>Passive.</i>	being loved
<i>Perf. Pass.</i>	having been loved

320. Only Transitive Verbs take Passive Phrases.—

Since the subject of a passive phrase must represent the receiver of an act, it is evident that only verbs which require objects, or transitive verbs, can have a passive conjugation. A few idiomatic uses that conflict with this statement will be considered in another place.

321. Changes Occurring in Turning an Active into a Passive Sentence.

<i>Active.</i>	I saw him
<i>Passive.</i>	He was seen by me

In turning an active sentence into a passive, three changes occur:—

1. The object of the active verb becomes the subject of the passive.
2. The active verb is replaced by a passive verb phrase.
3. The subject of the active verb is retained as the object of the preposition *by*, or some other indicating agency.

Notice that, while the subject and object change their grammatical relations, the logical relations of the real objects to the act do *not* change.

In the above sentence, *me* represents the *actor* just as truly when it is the object of the preposition as when, in the form *I*, it is the subject of the verb.

322. Value of the Passive Conjugation. — Passive phrases are used: —

1. When the receiver of the act is made more important than the actor.

Ex. — The rules should be obeyed.

2. When the actor is unknown.

Ex. — My purse was stolen yesterday.

3. When we wish to suppress the name of the actor.

Ex. — Several books were taken.

323. There are no progressive phrases in the passive conjugation except in the present and past tenses.

Ex. — The property is being improved.
The book is being soiled by use.

These forms have but recently come into use, and some authors still regard them as doubtful English.

324. The auxiliary of progressive and passive phrases is the same, the verb *be*. The only difference in their meaning must lie, therefore, in the completing participle. The progressive participle is active and progressive in meaning, therefore it forms an active phrase. The passive participle indicates an act as endured, hence it forms a passive phrase.

The following scheme shows the part the copula plays in building up these two sets of phrases.

325. Formation of Progressive and Passive Phrases.

SYNOPSIS OF THE COPULA.		PROG. PART.	PERFECT PART.
INDICATIVE MODE.		<i>Forming Progressive Phrases.</i>	<i>Forming Passive Phrases.</i>
<i>Pres.</i>	I am	giving	given
<i>Past.</i>	I was	giving	given
<i>Future.</i>	I shall be	giving	given
<i>Pres. Perf.</i>	I have been	giving	given
<i>Past Perf.</i>	I had been	giving	given
<i>Future Perf.</i>	I shall have been	giving	given
SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.			
<i>Pres.</i>	If I be	giving	given
<i>Past.</i>	If I were	giving	given
<i>Pres. Perf.</i>	If I have been	giving	given
<i>Past Perf.</i>	If I had been	giving	given
CONDITIONAL.			
	I should, would, might, or could be	giving	given
<i>Cond. Perf.</i>	I should, would, might, or could have been	giving	given
POTENTIAL.			
	I may, can, might, or could be	giving	given
<i>Pot. Perf.</i>	I may, can, might, or could have been	giving	given
OBLIGATIVE.			
	I must, should, or ought to be	giving	given
<i>Oblig. Perf.</i>	I must, should, or ought to have been	giving	given
IMPERATIVE.			
	be	giving	given

	INFINITIVE.		
<i>Root.</i>	to be	giving	given
<i>Gerund.</i>	being	giving	given
<i>Perf. Root Inf.</i>	to have been	giving	given
<i>Perf. Gerund.</i>	having been	giving	given
PARTICIPLES.			
	being	giving	given
<i>Perf. Part.</i>	having been	giving	given

326. How to tell a Passive Phrase. — Every passive phrase must contain a perfect participle and a form of the copula as auxiliary, but not every phrase so formed is passive. The perfect participles are often used in the predicate as pure adjectives; that is, expressing *condition*, not *action*.

Ex. — He is fatigued. The house is deserted.

In such uses there is not any thought of an action being performed or endured; the *existing condition* only is asserted, without reference to who or what brought it about. Such a phrase should be analyzed into copula and attribute complement, and not treated as a passive phrase.

IRREGULAR OR IDIOMATIC PASSIVES.

327. Some complete verbs which are usually followed by a prepositional phrase seem to need only the preposition to make them transitive. The object of the preposition then becomes the object of the idiomatic transitive phrase.

Ex. — I had thought of that plan.

Such an object is often turned into the subject of a passive phrase.

Ex. — That plan had been thought of.

This leaves the preposition in the passive as an adverbial adjunct. This construction is the only exception to the statement that only transitive verbs make passive phrases.

328. Indirect Object used as Subject of the Passive.

— Sometimes the indirect object is used as the subject of the passive, leaving the direct object in a construction which it is very difficult to explain.

Ex. — Active. He gave me a book.

Passive. I was given a book.

This is an unnatural and idiomatic use for which there is no real need in the language, and it should therefore be avoided in practice. But since it is frequently found in reputable authors, some disposition must be made of it.

The receiver of the action is *book*. In turning the sentence into the passive, its relation to the act is not changed, and no new grammatical use is made of it, hence it remains in the passive as a *residual object*, and forms the only exception to the law that passive phrases cannot take objects.

329. Objective Complements Become Attributive in Passive Sentences. — The objective complement is a modifier of the direct object; and when that element becomes subject in the passive, the modifier becomes an attribute complement, and changes to the nominative case if it be a substantive.

Ex. — Active. We made him treasurer.

Passive. He was made treasurer.

330. The Indirect Object of the active sentence is replaced in the passive by an equivalent adverbial phrase.

Ex. — He gave me a book.

A book was given to me.

331. Irregular or Idiomatic Verb Phrases. — All the forms that belong to the regular conjugation have now been discussed; but the uninflected character of our language has led to the introduction of many expressions which are irregular in structure, but which can be substituted for the regular forms of the conjugation.

1. I am to go = I *shall* go.

I am going to see him = I *shall* see him.

These forms may be classified as idiomatic future phrases.

2. I had better go = I *would* better go.

It may be called an idiomatic conditional phrase.

3. I have to give = I *must* give.

It may be regarded as an idiomatic obligative phrase.

332. Cautions in the Use of Verbs.

1. Be careful —

a. To choose the right verb (transitive or complete) to express your meaning.

Ex. — Sit (not set) down to rest awhile.

b. To distinguish between copulative and transitive verbs, that the right case may follow them.

Ex. — It appeared to be he (not him).

Few, if any, errors are made in the use of the objective case after transitive verbs. Nobody says, "I saw *he*."

To do these things requires a knowledge of the classification of verbs.

2. Be careful —

a. To make the verb agree in person and number with the subject.

Ex. — One of the branches obstructs (not obstruct) the view.

b. To use the past tense, and not the perfect participle, to assert past action or condition.

Ex. — I saw (not seen) him.

c. To use the perfect participle, never the past tense, in all perfect phrases.

Ex. — I had gone (not went) down town.

To do these things requires a knowledge of the conjugation of the verb.

EXERCISE 34.

Turn these sentences into the passive, accounting for every change in the active.

1. The boys have broken their promise.
2. They gave us a cool reception.
3. You must have known the circumstances.
4. The innocent sometimes bear the blame.
5. A false report increased the anxiety.
6. He welcomed his guest with real warmth.
7. Fire destroyed the city.
8. He must have deceived his friends.
9. Some writers affect a lofty style.
10. God tempers the wind to the shorn lamb.

332. Directions for parsing verbs and verb phrases.

In parsing a *simple verb*, state: —

1. The conjugation, whether new or old.
2. Principal parts (as proof of 1).
3. Complete or incomplete.

4. If incomplete, whether —

- a. Copula.
- b. Copulative.
- c. Transitive.
- d. Transitive-copulative.

5. Mode.

6. Tense.

7. Person and Number.

8. Agreement with subject.

333. In parsing a verb phrase, state : —

1. The exact kind. This necessitates giving the mode, tense, and voice (if passive) which the phrase expresses.
2. The composition. Separate it into auxiliary (or auxiliary phrase), and infinitive or participle used as object or attribute. Remember that the auxiliary or assertive part of a verb phrase includes all but the last word, which expresses the chief attribute.
3. Conjugation, old or new.
4. Complete or incomplete.
5. If incomplete, which class.
6. Person and number.
7. Agreement.

A simple verb is always active. It is understood that a verb phrase is active unless it is stated that it is passive.

EXAMPLES FOR PARSING.

1. He came when he had finished his work.
2. If I were there, I should be asked.

Came is a verb of the old conjugation; principal parts, come, came, come, complete, indicative mode,

third person, singular number, to agree with its subject, *he*.

Had finished is a past perfect indicative phrase of the verb *finish*, principal parts, finish, finished. It is composed of the auxiliary *had* and the past participle used idiomatically.

Finish is a verb of the new conjugation, incomplete, transitive, used here in the third person, singular number, to agree with its subject, *he*.

Were is a verb of the old conjugation, principal parts, be, am, was, been. Incomplete, copula, subjunctive mode, first person, singular number, to agree with its subject, *I*.

Should be asked is a conditional passive phrase of the verb *ask*, composed of the auxiliary phrase *should be*, and the perfect participle used as attribute complement. *Ask* is a verb of the new conjugation, incomplete, transitive, used here in the first person, singular number, to agree with its subject, *I*.

EXERCISE 35

FOR ANALYSIS AND PARSING.

Pupils should be responsible for all points already covered.

1. A strong feeling had been growing upon her during the speech.
2. Enjoyment may afford strength to mind and body.
3. Four powerful Norman horses were attached to the load.
4. Upon the ruins of every old castle our traveller looked with veneration.
5. Home-keeping youths have ever homely wits.

6. Now would I give a thousand furlongs of sea for an acre of barren ground.

7. Misery acquaints a man with strange bed-fellows.

8. If I were not Alexander, I would be Diogenes.

9. His neighbors and friends have been very kind to him.

10. Each of us sees with his own eyes, and no two alike.

11. Whether the rate may be lessened does not now concern us.

12. Thou canst not tell whence it cometh or whither it goeth.

13. Truth crushed to earth shall rise again.

14. Milton, thou shouldst be living at this hour.

15. They feared that he had been carried off by gypsies.

16. I tell you that which ye yourselves do know.

17. Without the art of printing, we should now have had no learning at all ; for books would have perished faster than they could have been transcribed.

18. Soon our places in the school will have been taken by others.

19. Hast thou entered into the treasures of the snow ?

20. By midsummer the channel of the Mississippi will have changed.

CHAPTER X.

THE ADVERB.

334. An adverb is a modifier of a modifier. Attributes, like objects themselves, have certain characteristics or limitations which require expression. A quality, for instance, implies the idea of degree, and our understanding of it is affected by our knowledge of how much or how little there is of it. Actions, too, are characterized by the place, time, manner, or reason of their occurrence; and all of these ideas modify or change our understanding of the action itself. So we need a class of words which express attributes or limitations of other attributes. A word which modifies or limits the meaning of a verb, adjective, adverb, or any part of speech except a substantive, is an adverb. The word signifies "joined to a verb," and the class is so called because its commonest office is to modify the verb.

Ex. — Very little rain fell last night.

Sing softly.

The stream runs very rapidly.

The man stood just inside the door.

Do it exactly as I do.

335. Division of Labor in Adverbs. — Not all adverbs can modify all the kinds of words which the adverb in general may modify.

1. Only adverbs of degree, such as *very*, *too*, *more*, *most*, modify adverbs and qualitative adjectives, for degree is the only limitation they are capable of.

Ex. — Very slow. So rapidly.

2. A verb is absolute in its meaning. An act either occurs, or it does not, and no degrees of it are possible; hence verbs are not modified by pure adverbs of degree, though they may be by words expressing measure.

Ex. — You have talked enough.

3. Verbs and participial adjectives, because they express attributes of action, are freely modified by all other classes of adverbs, expressing time, place, manner, etc.

Ex. — Come here.
Always do right.
Do not talk foolishly.

336. Classification According to Use. — Adverbs are of two kinds, simple and conjunctive.

A Simple Adverb is one whose only function is to modify.

Ex. — A very tall man.

A Conjunctive Adverb is one which, besides modifying some word in its own clause, connects that clause to another, making it a modifier in that other.

Ex. — I will go when I get ready.

337. Classification of Simple Adverbs. — The only classification of simple adverbs that need be made is based upon differences of meaning. While this is a rough and imperfect classification, it will be helpful, for

it will be found that most adverbs classify under one or other of these heads. Each class is grouped under two headings, the second expressing generally a closer or more definite idea, included in the first and more general one.

1. Adverbs of Time and Succession, showing, (1) *when* ;
(2) *in what order*.

Ex. — Now, then, always, formerly, often, soon, afterward, next, first, once, twice, thirdly.

2. Adverbs of Place and Motion toward a place.

Ex. — Here, below, there, yonder, above, in, out, back, forward, up, down, hither.

3. Adverbs of Manner and Quality, showing *how*, *in what way*.

Ex. — Thus, so, somehow, otherwise, well, falsely, gracefully, gently, truly.

4. Adverbs of Measure and Degree, showing *quantity*, *indefinitely*, or *how much*.

Ex. — Enough, much, little, more, least, quite, scarcely, very, so, greatly.

5. Modal Adverbs, which affect the meaning of the verb like a change of its mode.

338. Distinction Between Modal and Other Adverbs.

— Modal adverbs differ from all other adverbs in that they modify, not a single word, but a whole statement, by showing how the speaker or writer regards it, — whether as positive, negative, probable, or causal in its relation to something else. They attach to the assertive element of the predicate, while other adverbs modify *the attributive part*.

339. Classification of Modal Adverbs. — The differences of meaning noted above give rise to the following classification of modal adverbs.

1. Affirmative.

Ex. — Surely, indeed, certainly.

2. Negative.

Ex. — Not.

3. Potential.

Ex. — Possibly, perhaps, probably.

4. Causal.

Ex. — Hence, accordingly, therefore.

340. Causal Modal Adverbs Shade into Conjunctions.

— Causal modal adverbs show the causal relation of one thought to another which is implied or expressed in another sentence or clause. When used to bind two statements together, they become conjunctions.

Ex. — He was legally convicted, therefore he was justly punished.

If, however, the conjunction *and* is supplied to make the connection, the word *therefore* becomes a causal modal adverb, meaning “for this reason.”

341. Position of Modal Adverbs. — Modal adverbs attach grammatically to the verb as the ruling element of the sentence; but because they really affect the whole thought, their position is much freer than that of other adverbs, and they are frequently set off by commas.

Ex. — Certainly this man is to blame.

I shall certainly go.

I was very fond of her, indeed.

342. Interrogative Adverbs. — The adverbs *when*, *where*, *why*, *how*, *whither*, and *whence*, are often used to inquire after some unknown time, place, reason, etc.; and when so used they are interrogative adverbs. Like all interrogatives, they stand at the beginning of the sentence.

Ex. — When did you arrive?
How is it done?

343. Inflection of Adverbs. — The inflection of adverbs is for the same purpose as that of adjectives, i.e., to show varying degrees of quality; it is shown in the same way, i.e., by adding *er* and *est* to the positive, and it goes by the same name — comparison.

The following are the important facts: —

1. Very few pure adverbs have a real inflection.

Ex. — Soon, sooner, soonest.
Often, oftener, oftenest.

2. Those adjectives which are also used as adverbs (chiefly the irregular ones) have, when they are adverbs, the same inflection that they have as adjectives.

Ex. — Better, best.
Fast, faster, fastest.
Long, longer, longest.

3. The great mass of adverbs are made to show degree by being modified by *more* and *most*, *less* and *least*, thus forming comparative and superlative adverbial phrases.

Ex. — She writes more rapidly than I.

344. Adverb Phrases. — An adverb phrase is a group of words not easily analyzed, and used as a

simple adverb. These phrases consist mainly of two classes : —

1. Those which contain words used rarely or never except in these particular phrases — expressing ideas that have crystallized in these exact forms.

Ex. — Of yore, by stealth, in lieu.

2. Idiomatic phrases which cannot be analyzed, generally made up of a preposition and an adjective.

Ex. — At all, in vain, for good, at last, of late.

These *adverb phrases* should be distinguished from ordinary prepositional phrases, used adverbially, and called *adverbial phrases*. The difference is one of structure, the uses being the same.

345. Expletive Use of There. — The word *there* is often used where it has no adverbial force whatever, and should not be classed as an adverb. Sometimes, for rhetorical reasons, it is desirable to throw the subject after the predicate. This would tend to make the verb the leader of the sentence, but it is not according to the genius of the language to begin other than imperative sentences in this way. Accordingly, a word is needed, simply to “fill out,” serving no grammatical function, for the subject comes later.

There is used in this way, having almost the exact value of *it* as described in ARTS. 151, 152, and for the same reason it is called an Expletive. The expletive is especially often employed when the verb *be* is to be used as a complete verb, meaning *existence*. In such cases, the subject is thrown after the verb, probably because there would be a sense of incompleteness if the

predicate closed with this little word, which is almost invariably associated with and followed immediately by an attribute. It sounds much more smooth and finished to say, —

“There were giants in those days,”

than to omit the expletive, —

“Giants were in those days.”

In interrogative and relative clauses the expletive may be used, and the subject remain in its proper place.

Ex. — What is there that I can do ?

What there is, is mine.

346. Responsives. — *Yes* and *no* are the representatives of an entire statement. In response to the questions, — Is he here? Will he go? *yes* means, “He is here,” and *no* means, “He will not go.”

In their absolute disconnection they resemble interjections. They have at present no adverbial force, but because they were originally adverbs they are classified here.

CONJUNCTIVE ADVERBS.

347. The conjunctive adverb is found only in complex sentences. It so modifies the meaning of the verb that the whole clause comes to mean time, or place, or manner, or degree; and at the same time it connects the clause to that which it is to modify.

Ex. — 1. If he comes.

2. When he comes.

3. As he comes.

4. Where he comes.

5. Because he comes.

In these expressions the first value of the adverb is to give a definite meaning to the whole clause by modifying the verb *comes*: (1) indicates condition; (2) time; (3) manner; (4) place; (5) cause. These are all single adverbial ideas, which have no value in themselves, but which may be attached as modifiers to other statements.

The second value is its power to connect its clause to a principal statement.

348. Kinds of Clauses Connected by Conjunctive Adverbs.

1. Adverbial Clauses of —

- a. Time — It happened when I was a child.
- b. Place — Go where duty calls you.
- c. Manner — Do as you know you should.
- d. Degree — This cane is longer than that is.
- e. Cause — Do right because it is right.
- f. Condition — Go if you can.
- g. Concession — I will do it although it is hard.
- h. Purpose — Exercise that you may grow strong.
- i. Result — He was so weak that he fell.

2. Adjective Clauses of —

- a. Time — Night is the time when owls fly.
- b. Place — This is the place where I laid it.

3. Substantive Clauses: —

- a. How an acorn becomes an oak is a mystery of nature.
- b. Tell me why you did it.
- c. Who knows whither the clouds have fled?

349. Pronominal Adverbs. — The adverbs *where*, *when*, *whither*, *whence*, *why*, *how*, are derived from pronominal roots, the *wh* being identical with *wh* in

who. They retain much of their substantive force in addition to their adverbial relation: —

When = at which time.

Where = at which place.

Why = for what reason.

And it is for this reason that they are so freely used as connectives of adjective and noun clauses.

EXERCISE 36

Classify and describe the use of the adverbs.

1. The clock that stands there has never run regularly.
2. Benevolent men usually give cheerfully.
3. The sky was nearly black with thick, angry clouds.
4. The less forward youth may become the more intelligent man.
5. Fruit so large and luscious is somewhat rare.
6. Why do Americans go abroad for fine scenery?
7. Whose work was most highly recommended?
8. My duty and my interest both urged me forward.
9. I had been very cordially received.
10. When you turn, go directly west.

350. Cautions in the Use of Adverbs. — The general law for the position of an adverb is: "Place it where it will most clearly convey the meaning intended."

1. An adverb naturally follows the verb; but if that is followed by a complement or other lengthy modifier, the adverb may precede the verb.

Ex. — I really believe she is offended.

2. The adverb may be placed between the parts of a verb phrase.

Ex. — I should greatly enjoy a visit with you.

3. An adverb must not separate an infinitive and its sign *to*. (Why?)

Ex. — The gain was not sufficient fully to justify the expense; not, "to fully justify," etc.

4. Two negatives must not be used to express a single negation.

Ex. — I have nothing to wear; not, I haven't nothing to wear.

5. Participles may not be modified by the pure adverbs of degree, *very* and *too*.

Ex. — I am much frightened; not, I am very frightened.

6. The demonstrative *that* must not be used as an adverb of degree.

Ex. — When I was about so high; not, When I was about that high.

7. An adverb should not be represented by its corresponding adjective.

Ex. — You walk too slowly; not, You walk too slow.

8. Adverbs should not be made to do the work of adjectives after copulative verbs, because they cannot modify the subject.

Ex. — The house looks bad; not, The house looks badly.

9. Use *directly* as an adverb, never as a conjunction.

Ex. — The house stands directly in front of you.

10. The word *only* needs especial attention; for it may be either an adjective or an adverb, and may therefore be construed with any word by which it stands.

Ex. — I only saw him.

Only may be an adjective, modifying *I*, or an adverb modifying *saw*.

What is the difference of meaning in these cases?

Only I saw him. I only saw him. I saw him only.

EXERCISE 37.

Correct the use of adverbs, citing the above cautions as your reasons.

1. I did not see the result of the action clearly.
2. These two statements must be viewed exactly in the same light.
3. He doesn't know nothing.
4. Nobody never suspects you.
5. We were very gratified at the result.
6. The bell began to ring directly we started.
7. You talk too slow.
8. The steamer looks gayly.
9. I was too disappointed to enjoy the sail.
10. I intended to often see him.
11. How sadly you must feel.
12. This is an extreme warm summer.
13. I was that faint that I could hardly talk.
14. I was taken ill with the mountain fever suddenly.
15. How much did he pay you? He only paid me a dollar.
16. You looked charmingly last evening.
17. She made many mistakes certainly.
18. I labored for three days very industriously.
19. I was too enraged to speak.
20. That is easier said than done.
21. How fragrant the roses smell.
22. Don't say nothing about it.
23. It is rarely that such a thing happens.
24. I was too overcome by my feelings to properly reply.
25. He was seen to suddenly fall.
26. The lawyer watched the expression of the judge's face anxiously.

351. Directions for Parsing Adverbs. — State: —

1. The kind.
2. The degree (if shown by phrase).
3. The construction (the word modified by it).

CHAPTER XI.

THE PREPOSITION.

352. The Preposition is a word which brings a substantive into a modifying relation by connecting it to some other element in the sentence. In the expression "I saw him — the window," *window* has no grammatical connection, and can have no logical value until it is connected to *saw* by *from*; then we understand that *window* bears the relation of *place* to the *seeing*.

353. Origin of Prepositions. — Prepositions are a comparatively recent addition to the language. Many of them were originally adverbs prefixed to verbs, as in the verb *forbear*, and they were called *prepositions* for this reason. They usually expressed *place*, though they came gradually to denote time, accompaniment, and many other notions.

354. The Preposition Compared with the Adverb. — The points in which prepositions differ from adjectives and adverbs are too few fully to account for their classification as a distinct part of speech.

Compare "She sat near me," and "She sat by me." Most people would dispose of *near* as an adverb, modified by an adverbial phrase, *to me*, and of *by* as a preposition governing *me* and connecting it to *sat*. But where is the difference of meaning? Are not *near* and

by alike the original modifiers of *sat*, requiring the limiting adverbial substantive *me* to fix the *place* of the act?

355. Is there a Logical Necessity for a Class of Prepositions? It becomes a serious question whether we ought not to regard these words as *idea words*, very general in character, fixing the *place* of objects, the *place, time, manner*, etc., of acts, and *limited* adverbially by the substantives which always accompany them.

Such a ruling would do away entirely with the class of prepositions, making of them adjectives or adverbs, according to use. It must be confessed that logic is on the side of such a disposition; but custom in all languages has elevated the substantive to the chief position, and reduced the preposition to the rank of a mere connective.

356. The Meanings of Prepositions. — Many and fine shades of meaning are expressed by prepositions; and the same word, in different connections, expresses many different ideas, as may be seen by comparing the following uses of *of*: —

- | | |
|--|--|
| 1. A crown of rubies. | (Material.) |
| 2. The song of the bird. | (Ownership.) |
| 3. The pony is fond of sugar. | (Explains application of the attribute.) |
| 4. He was possessed of this wild desire. | (Agency.) |
| 5. Some of us. | (Partitive Use.) |
| 6. All of us. | (Appositional Use.) |
| 7. Rid yourself of this idea. | (Separation.) |
| 8. You never heard of him? | (Reference.) |

357. Lack of Precision in Use of Prepositions in English. — In general, the choice of preposition depends upon the exact idea to be expressed. A verb indicating *motion towards* requires a preposition of like meaning :—

Ex. — Go into the house.

A verb indicating *rest in a place* requires a preposition of similar meaning : —

Ex. — He stood in the door.

But many of our prepositions are used in an arbitrary or idiomatic way, and the correct use of these must be secured through practice.

Ex. — He put it in (rather than *into*) the drawer.

He was averse to (not *from*, as one would expect) the change.

Meet at (not *to*) the gate (though *meet* indicates motion toward).

EXERCISE 38.

How many and what prepositions can you use with these words? Can you determine their relations?

Ex. — Call at our house. (Place.)
 Call on me. (Idiomatic.)
 Call in an hour. (Time.)
 Call for me. (Purpose.)

accuse	inquire	offensive	prejudice	believe
change	share	call	differ	agree
conversant	die	insist	taste	fall

358. Prepositional Phrases. — The substantive connected by the preposition is called its object. The term has little significance, but serves to distinguish this use from the subject relation.

The preposition and its object form a phrase which is adjective if used to modify a substantive, and adverbial if used to modify any attributive element, verb, adjective, or adverb:—

- Ex. — A path up the mountain. (Adjective.)
 Be polite at all times. (Adverbial, modifying an adjective.)
 He will come on the next train. (Adverbial, modifying a verb.)

359. Value of Prepositional Phrases. — The English language abounds in prepositional phrases; and they are of the highest importance, because it is an analytic or uninflected language. Their chief purpose is to supplement the slight case inflection of nouns, just as verb phrases supplement the tense and mode inflection of the verb. The following examples show how well our phrases express ideas which in other languages have distinct case forms:—

1. The hard hand of the farmer. (Possessive or Genitive.)
2. Give it to me. (Dative Case.)
3. Go with him. (Ablative Case.)

360. Preposition Phrases. — It frequently requires two or more words to express the relation which a substantive is to bear to that which it modifies. In such a case, the group of words may be regarded as a preposition phrase, and treated as a unit, even though it may be, and generally is, capable of a closer analysis.

Ex. — The dog came from under the house.

The relation here is complex, involving the two ideas of *place* and *separation*; and naturally it requires a *phrase* to express it.

Examples of preposition phrases are : —

By means of, instead of, because of, in accordance with, as regards, for the sake of, in respect of, out of, from out of, according to.

Preposition phrases must not be confused with *prepositional phrases*. The former are named from their *use*, the latter from their *structure*. The former are always used as prepositions, the latter as adjectives and adverbs.

361. Prepositional Complements. — As was seen in ART. 327, a preposition sometimes seems to be essential to the meaning of the verb, the two being equivalent to a transitive verb. Such a word may be called a prepositional complement.

Ex. — He wondered at his zeal.

We had thought of that plan.

The officer ran up the signal to the mast.

The essential nature of these prepositions is still better seen upon turning the sentences into the passive : —

His zeal was wondered at.

That plan had been thought of.

The signal was run up to the mast.

362. Prepositions Shade into Conjunctions. — Many prepositions are used freely as conjunctions. The only test is to apply the definition.

Ex. — He came before me. (Preposition.)

He came before I did. (Conjunction.)

363. Directions for the Proper Use of Prepositions.

1. Use *to* and *into* after verbs of *motion towards* a place, and *in* and *at* after verbs expressing *position* or *motion within* a place.

Ex. — Come into the house.

Walk about in the house.

2. Use *between* when referring to two things, and *among* when referring to more than two.
3. It is correct to use *from*, but never *to* or *than*, after the adjective *different*.
4. *At* is narrower in its meaning than *in* or *on*.

Ex. — We live in Brooklyn, on Hancock Street, at No. 500.

5. Do not insert prepositions needlessly.

Ex. — You are always scolding at me.

6. Do not omit needed prepositions.

Ex. — Such a person is unworthy your respect.

364. Prepositions have no inflection.

365. To Parse a Preposition. State : —

1. The idea conveyed by it.
2. The elements connected by it.
3. Value of the phrase (adjective or adverbial).

EXERCISE 39.

Correct these sentences, applying the above directions.

1. This space is included between three lines.
2. He boards to home.
3. The best place for fruit is at Philadelphia.
4. There is no use fretting about it.
5. Her preaching is different to her practice.
6. They are spending the summer at New York in Syracuse.
7. Harry, walking onto a log, fell in the river.
8. At noon is the time for dinner.
9. The two children began to quarrel among themselves.

CHAPTER XII.

THE CONJUNCTION.

366. The Conjunction shows the relation between ideas of equal rank, and judgments of equal or unequal rank. It is therefore the grammatical connective of: —

1. Words and Phrases which have the same rank and construction.

Ex. — The wind and the rain continued.

The children played in the hall and on the veranda.

2. Statements that have the same or different rank.

Ex. — The wind blew and the rain fell.

The wind blew while the rain fell.

367. Conjunctions Compared with Prepositions.

1. Both are connectives and relation words.
2. Prepositions usually connect only *words*, while conjunctions connect elements of any form, words, phrases, and clauses.
3. Prepositions connect only words of unequal rank, a modifying to a modified word; while conjunctions connect statements of equal or unequal rank, but words and phrases of equal rank only.

368. Since many words are used both as prepositions and as conjunctions, the only test of the conjunction is the application of the definition.

369. Elements of Equal Rank. — Two elements are said to be of the same rank when they are used in

the same construction, or when neither depends upon the other. Examples are:—

1. Two subjects — *Mary* and her *mother* went.
2. Two objects — I saw *Mary* and her *mother*
3. Two verbs — I *saw* and *understood* it.
4. Two adjectives — It was *large* and *white*.
5. Two adverbs — He works *surely* and *swiftly*.
6. Two prepositions — You are either *for* or *against* it.
7. Two objects of a preposition — It is a saving in *time* and *expense*.

370. Classification. — Conjunctions are classified according to the rank or value of the elements connected, as follows:—

1. Coördinating Conjunctions.
2. Subordinating Conjunctions.

COÖRDINATING CONJUNCTIONS.

371. A Coördinating Conjunction is one that connects only elements of equal rank, whether words, phrases, or clauses.

Ex. — You and I will stay.

A government of the people and by the people.
I am sorry, but it cannot be helped.

372. Meaning of the Terms. — Coördinating means “making equal in order or rank.” Subordinating means “making of a *lower order* or rank.” The active ending of the terms — *ing* — is very significant, for it is the choice of conjunction which fixes the rank. The two statements, —

The wind ceased. The rain fell, —

have no relation to each other. If we connect them by *and*, they become equal in rank. If we connect them by *when*, the connective forces the second statement to do the work of an adverb in the first, and so subordinates it.

373. Classification of Coördinating Conjunctions. — Coördinating conjunctions are classified according to the relations which the connected elements bear to each other, into: —

1. Copulative Conjunctions.
2. Adversative Conjunctions.
3. Alternative Conjunctions.
4. Causal Conjunctions.

374. Copulative Conjunctions are such as unite similar ideas, or those in the same line of thought. Their effect is like that of the sign of addition, which unites only like quantities.

Ex. — The day is bright, and I am in high spirits.

The second fact is a natural accompaniment of the first.

And is the typical conjunction of this class. Others of similar meaning are: also, too, besides, likewise, moreover, furthermore.

Since these words are often used as adverbs, the best test of them is to see whether *and* can take their place without radical change of meaning.

375. An Adversative Conjunction is one that connects grammatically two statements that are adverse or opposed to each other in thought.

Ex. — You may take the book, but I dislike to lend it.

One would naturally expect the first statement to be made because of willingness to lend the book, but the connective shows the opposition of thought. Such words are at once the signs of *grammatical connection* and *logical disconnection*. For this reason they and the class next to be described are sometimes called Disjunctive Conjunctions.

The typical adversative conjunction is *but*. Others are: yet, still, only, however, nevertheless, notwithstanding.

376. An Alternative Conjunction is one which offers or denies a choice (alternative).

Ex. — You or I must go (not both).

Neither the cloth nor the thread is suitable.

Notice the disjunctive effect of these words, which was referred to under adversative conjunctions.

The list of alternatives includes: or, else; either, or; neither, nor.

377. A Coördinating Causal Conjunction is one which expresses inference, conclusion, or an independent causal relation.

Ex. — You study hard, therefore you will succeed.

You must expect to die, for all men are mortal.

The typical word of the class is *therefore*. Others are: hence, for, so, thus, accordingly, consequently.

Of the causal conjunctions, *for* is most difficult to recognize as a coördinating conjunction, probably because it is often, though wrongly, used interchangeably with the subordinating conjunction *because*, by people who do not realize that a causal statement may be either independent or dependent grammatically. Pupils should

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meet the fact squarely that *for*, as a conjunction, is always coördinating, while *because* is always subordinating; and they will soon learn to discriminate between their fine shades of meaning. See ART. 383.

378. Correlatives. — Correlatives are words “related together” in the doing of a single kind of work, or in the expression of a single idea. In the sentence, —

Either you or he may go, —

either — *or* are associated together in the one work of connecting *you* and *he*. *Either* emphasizes both terms equally. In the sentence, —

Not only John *but also* his brother failed,

but also emphasizes the last term.

As a rule, correlatives do not stand together in the sentence, or they would be classed as phrases. Each word introduces one of the elements to be connected, but (if coördinating) the two together constitute the conjunction.

Correlatives may be either coördinating or subordinating in rank. The coördinating correlatives are used chiefly to link thought more closely or to emphasize one or both of the elements connected.

The alternative correlatives are: *either, or; neither, nor*. The copulative correlatives are: *both, and; not only, but also; at once (or alike), and; what, what*.

- Ex.** — 1. Neither this man nor his father sinned.
 2. Both the house and its furniture were burned.
 3. Napoleon conquered, not only Venice, but also Italy.
 4. He was at once a hero and a gentleman.
 5. What with talking, what with reading, the morning slipped away.

379. Distinction Between Coördinating Conjunctions and Modal Adverbs.

The purest conjunctions are: *and*, *but*, *or*, and *for*. All others have considerable adverbial force, as may be seen by retaining one of them in a sentence and introducing a typical conjunction.

Notice that when their connective work is done by the pure conjunction, they become modal adverbs.

Ex. — I have come, and moreover I mean to stay.
It is cold, but nevertheless it is pleasant.

SUBORDINATING CONJUNCTIONS.

380. A Subordinating Conjunction is a word which connects two statements in such a way that one of them becomes a noun, an adjective, or an adverbial element in the other.

381. Most Subordinating Conjunctions are words having two distinct values, a connective value, and some other, adjective, adverbial, or substantive, within the clause. They are parts of the clauses in which they are found, and give to them the peculiar meaning which they have in the independent statement.

Ex. — Business improves when confidence is restored.

382. Classification of Subordinating Conjunctions. — Subordinating conjunctions consist of:

1. The Conjunctive Adverbs;
 - a.* Conjunctions of Time — *when*, *as*, *while*, *until*, *before*, *ere*, *since*, *after*, *as soon as*, *as long as*.
 - b.* Conjunctions of Place — *where*, *whence*.
 - c.* Conjunctions of Cause — *because*, *as*, *since*, *whereas*.

- d. Conjunctions of Condition — if, unless, except, provided.
 - e. Conjunctions of Concession — though, although.
 - f. Conjunctions of End or Purpose — that, so that, lest, in order that.
 - g. Conjunctions of Comparison — as, than.
2. The Substantive Conjunctions, *that* and *whether*, so called because they are the commonest signs of the substantive clause. They are not really connectives, for a noun clause used as subject or object needs no connective, neither have they any office to perform in their own clause. They are purely introductory, stamping the clauses as noun clauses.

Ex. — That she was wanted was not true.
I do not know whether this is a mistake.

3. The Conjunctive Pronouns, which have already been described.

Ex. — He liveth long who liveth well.

383. For and Because. — These words are hopelessly confused by many people, although their *real uses* are as distinct in our own language as in the Latin or German.

For is properly used: —

1. To connect a fact to the conclusion which is drawn from it.

Ex. — It must have rained, for the ground is wet.

2. To connect to one statement a *new thought* which bears the relation of cause or reason to 't, *but which is in no sense a modifier of it*.

Ex. — I was indignant; for I had done my best

This is equivalent to, — I was indignant, and the reason was that I had done my best. That is, there are two distinct thoughts, neither dependent grammati-

cally upon the other, yet bearing the relation of cause and effect.

The looseness (independence) of the construction is shown by the punctuation.

Compare with this the answer to the question, — Why were you indignant?

Ans. I was indignant because (not *for*) I had done my best. Here the whole purpose of the sentence is to give the *cause of the indignation*, therefore, in this sense, the causal clause is an essential part of the first statement, and is dependent upon it, *because* being a subordinating conjunction.

Because is properly used only to show this essentially close relation of a causal clause to an incomplete principal statement, the whole expressing but *one thought*.

For links together two independent thoughts.

Because is subordinating, *for* is coördinating.

384. Ellipsis of Clauses of Comparison. — A comparison always involves a repetition, since the quality under consideration must be asserted of both objects compared.

Ex. — She is larger than I am large.

She is as tall as her mother is tall.

Since the assertion and the attribute in the dependent clause are but a repetition of the independent one, it is common to omit one or both elements.

Ex. — She is larger than I am.

She is as tall as her mother.

In analysis, these elements must be replaced; for they are grammatically necessary, and are dropped for *rhetorical* reasons only.

385. Conjunction Phrases. — Frequently several words taken together do the work of a conjunction, and are called conjunction phrases.

Ex. — I came in order that I might see for myself.

Sometimes parts of these phrases are remnants of suppressed dependent clauses. The sentence, —

She looks as if she were tired,

means —

She looks as (she would look) if she were tired.

But since we use such words without being conscious of the ellipsis, both economy and simplicity are secured by treating them as conjunction phrases.

386. Subordinating Correlatives are used almost wholly in bringing out the idea of *degree of quality*. The two terms are necessary from the very nature of the process, which is a complex one. The comparison is instituted by one word, which represents the quality without fixing its limit, —

Ex. — She is larger —

and is completed by a clause which fixes the limit or degree by citing an object in which the degree is known,

— than her sister.

387. From what has been said above, it will be seen that, of a pair of correlatives, the last term will be a conjunction of comparison, *as*, or *than*, and that the first term will be an attributive word, representing an indefinite degree of quality. It may be: —

1. An adjective or adverb of the comparative degree.

Ex. — She is taller than I had supposed.

Come sooner than you did yesterday.

cally upon the other, yet bearing the relation of cause and effect.

The looseness (independence) of the construction is shown by the punctuation.

Compare with this the answer to the question,—
Why were you indignant?

Ans. I was indignant because (not *for*) I had done my best. Here the whole purpose of the sentence is to give the *cause of the indignation*, therefore, in this sense, the causal clause is an essential part of the first statement, and is dependent upon it, *because* being a subordinating conjunction.

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1. An adjective or adverb of the comparative degree.

Ex. — She is taller than I had supposed.

Come sooner than you did yesterday.

2. An adverb of degree qualifying an adjective or adverb.

Ex. — The boy is as happy as a king.

He walked as rapidly as could be expected.

The speech was more noisy than impressive.

3. Any simple adverb of condition, time, cause, etc.

Ex. — If I speak false, then may my father perish.

388. The Chief Subordinating Correlatives are : —

1. Though — yet : Though he slay me yet will I trust him.
2. So — that : I am so tired that I must rest.
3. As — as : The water was as pure as crystal.
4. If — then : If he be honest, then I am mistaken.
5. As — so : As the hart panteth after the water-brooks, so panteth my soul after thee, O God.
6. So — as : This book is not so large as that.
7. When — then : When the heart beats no more, then life ends.
8. Where — there : Where lilies bloom, there will the bees be found.

389. Cautions in the Use of Conjunctions.

1. Two singular subjects joined by *and* are equivalent to a plural subject, and require a plural verb.

Ex. — The ball and top are wanted.

Except when they refer to the same object, or are thought of as a unit.

Ex. — My friend and adviser is with me.

Bread and butter is a perfect food.

2. Two singular subjects connected by a disjunctive conjunction (adversative or alternative) are equivalent to a singular subject, since the assertion concerns only one of them, and require a singular verb.

Ex. — The lady or her daughter comes every day.

3. *Or* is the proper correlative of *either* or *whether*.
4. *Nor* is the proper correlative of *neither*.
5. *As* is the proper correlative of *as* in a statement of equality.

Ex. — This pencil is as small as that.

6. *As* is the correlative of *so* in statements of inequality.

Ex. — It is not so large as this.

7. *Than* is the proper correlative of *else*, *other*, *otherwise*, or any comparative word.

Ex. — Other worlds than ours.

He was nothing else than a failure.

8. *Lest* is equivalent to *that not*, and should not be used instead of *that* after words expressing fear, doubt, or denial.

Ex. — I fear that (not *lest*) something has delayed him.

9. *What* should never be introduced after *than* or *but*.

Ex. — Of wrong use : Your grapes are larger than what my sister's are.

I do not know but what I shall go.

10. *Like* must never be used as a conjunction instead of *as*, or *as if*.

Ex. — He talked as if (not *like*) he would go.

Talk to him as (not *like*) you did to me.

11. *If* means condition, and should not be used for *whether*, which suggests two alternatives.

Ex. — I do not know whether (not *if*) he is at home.

12. *And* should not be used instead of the sign *to* of an infinitive.

Ex. — Come and see me, for Come to see me.

13. *Where* should not be used for *in which*, or in reference to what is not strictly place.

Ex. — An angle is where two lines come together.

390. Directions for Parsing Conjunctions. — To parse a conjunction, state : —

1. The class, according to rank of elements connected.
2. The sub-class.
3. If correlative, with what.
4. The elements connected by it.

EXERCISE 40.

Correct these sentences, applying the above cautions.

1. Neither tear or soil your clothes.
2. You are not as tall as I am.
3. That demand was nothing else but robbery.
4. You act like you were tired.
5. I have no more excuses but those I have given you.
6. I doubt if this is the right thing to do.
7. There is no other way but this.
8. Be as kind as to close the window.
9. Try and come to-day.
10. A noun is nothing else but a name.

EXERCISE 41.

Parse prepositions, adverbs, and conjunctions.

1. Since I learned of your trouble I have tried to help you.
2. Grain as well as fruits grow well in this soil.
3. After dinner I wrote a letter while I was waiting for my, teacher.
4. I despise you, nevertheless I pity you.
5. You claim to be truthful; now I know you are not.
6. He is strong, yet gentle.
7. Come back as soon as you can.
8. This is a dangerous work; besides, no one asks you to do it.
9. The rain did not stop until evening.

10. You may stay until I come.
11. Are you sick ? then say so.
12. No one but him thought me clever.
13. I would not help you except that I believe you to be honest.
14. You have no money, moreover you are in debt.
15. You have no money, and moreover you are in debt.
16. As the train started, the man fell overboard.
17. Do not go yet.
18. Do your work, otherwise you will get no pay.
19. I like him, only I do not fully trust him.
20. Do the work quickly, but do it well.
21. Give me such things as you have.
22. His conduct was neither just nor wise.
23. The coming and going of the birds are more or less a mystery
and a surprise.

CHAPTER XIII.

THE INTERJECTION.

391. The Interjection is not really a part of speech, since it expresses feeling, not thought. It is, however, closely interwoven with the elements of thought, and is often an important means of suggesting thought. The mere ejaculation, *oh!* may suggest according to the tone used: —

I understand now.

I am delighted.

I am suffering.

I am surprised.

I am frightened.

From this illustration it is apparent that the interjection bears a much closer resemblance to the whole sentence than to any of its parts.

392. Pure Interjections are representations of natural sounds, and are the best examples we have of natural and rudimentary language.

The syllables, *ha! ha!* or *ah! ah!* represent fairly well the sounds made in laughing and crying, the difference depending upon the manner of utterance. The interjections of disgust, *pooh! pshaw! fudge!* are natural results of the positions which the muscles of the mouth assume when that feeling exists.

393. Interjections are classified, according to the feeling expressed, into: —

1. Interjections of painful emotion, pain, sorrow, or sorrowful surprise.

Ex. — Oh! ah! alas! heigho!

2. Interjections of joyful emotion, pleasure, surprise, wonder.

Ex. — Oh! ah! ha! hey! hurrah!

3. Interjections of disapproval or contempt, —

Ex. — Pah! fudge! pshaw! bah!

4. Interjections of signal or direction, —

Ex. — Hello! ho! scat! shoo! whoa! gee!

5. Interjections used to secure silence, —

Ex. — Hush! list! tut! whist!

6. Interjections which imitate sounds, —

Ex. — Ching-a-ling! tick-tock! pop! bang! chug!.

394. Interjections Shade into Exclamatory Sentences.

— Interjections shade from the simplest sounds, oh! ah! through real words expressing feeling rather than ideas, —

Stop! mercy! indeed! good!

through more or less complex phrases used with similar meaning, —

Oh me! dear me! well-a-day!

up to the exclamatory sentence, which is really an extended interjection, though it may also express a judgment, —

What shall I do now! Oh for the wings of a dove!

Why should the spirit of mortal be proud!

395. Other Parts of Speech as Interjections. — Any word used to express feeling rather than ideas may be parsed as an interjection.

The imperative modes of verbs are especially often used in this way.

Exclamatory sentences and phrases are often elliptical, because strong feeling tends to brevity of expression. It is usually better to dispose of the whole as interjectional, than to supply missing elements.

396. Interrogative Interjections.—Interjections are often used to take the place of a whole question:—

1. Where a question has not been distinctly heard.

Ex.—Heh? eh?

2. Where an insinuation is made in the form of a question.

Ex.—Trade is not very brisk now, eh?

3. Where a statement has awakened surprise.

Ex.—Ah? (Can it be!)

The first of these uses is inelegant, and is more honored in the breach than the observance.

397. Use of Oh! and O!

O is the interjection used with a noun in direct address.

The point of exclamation always follows the whole expression:

Ex.—To thee, O God!

Oh! is used in the expression of joy, pain, and other emotions, and the point may follow it,—

Ex.—Oh! I have hurt my finger.

or the whole expression may be made exclamatory:

Ex.—Oh! how beautiful this sunset is!

O is frequently found in literature where *oh* would be preferable.

398. Parsing. — An interjection is parsed by stating :

1. Whether or not it is a pure interjection.
2. The feeling expressed by it.

399. An interjection is indicated in writing by the mark of exclamation which always follows it, but the exact feeling which it expresses must be gathered from the context. In speech, the manner of utterance is a sufficient guide.

CHAPTER XIV.

VERBALS—INFINITIVES AND PARTICIPLES.

400. The verbals are perhaps the most difficult subject of grammar, owing to their twofold nature and their manifold uses. Their verbal meanings have been fully set forth in the chapter on the verb, but their constructions require a separate treatment here. The following review will be necessary to an understanding of this chapter:—

Verbals	ART. 265
Verbals Compared with Verbs . . .	ART. 266
Distinction between the Gerund and the Progressive Participle . . .	ART. 268
Infinitives	ART. 268
Meaning of the Term Infinitive . .	ART. 269
Infinitive and Participial Phrases .	ARTS. 313-315

INFINITIVES.

401. The simple infinitives and their phrases are repeated here from ARTS. 313-315.

ROOT INFINITIVE PHRASES.

	COMMON FORM.	PROGRESSIVE.	PASSIVE.
<i>Simple.</i>	to love	to be loving	to be loved
<i>Perfect.</i>	to have loved	to have been loving	to have been loved

GERUND PHRASES.

	COMMON FORM.	PROGRESSIVE.	PASSIVE.
<i>Simple.</i>	loving	(itself prog.)	being loved
<i>Perfect.</i>	having loved	having been loving	having been loved

402. An Infinitive Phrase may be: —

1. A combination of a progressive or perfect participle with the infinitive of the auxiliary *have* or *be*, for the purpose of adding the meaning of progressive or perfected action to the meaning of the simple infinitive.

Ex. — Having been loving.

2. A simple infinitive or phrase, and its complement or modifiers, or both.

Ex. — It did not seem to be he.
Resolve to study diligently.

403. As to the structure of these phrases, notice: —

1. That they are assuming, not asserting forms.
2. That only two auxiliaries are used, *have* and *be*.
3. That only the infinitives of these auxiliaries are used.
4. That all phrases end with a participle of the verb to which the phrase belongs.
5. That the leader of the phrase decides whether it is a root infinitive phrase, or a gerund phrase.
6. That progressive phrases are formed by uniting the proper infinitive of *be* with a progressive participle.
7. That passive phrases are formed by uniting the proper infinitive of *be* with a perfect participle.
8. That perfect phrases are formed by uniting the infinitive of *have* with a perfect participle.
9. That perfect progressive phrases are formed by uniting the perfect infinitive phrase of *be* (to have, or having been) with a progressive participle.
10. That the same form of *be*, if united with a perfect participle, makes a perfect passive phrase.

NOTE. — Since the participial phrases are the same in appearance as the gerunds, these observations apply equally well to them, except that the leader of a participial phrase is always a *participle*, not an *infinitive* of *have* or *be*.

404. No Tense Signification. — Verbal phrases have no definite tense signification. They show the act to be indefinite, or progressive, or perfected, and they should be characterized by these terms, not by the words *present* or *past*.

Ex. — She has promised to sing. (Indefinite future.)

I expected to have completed the work before he came.

(Perfected action at the time of the coming.)

Be careful to avoid giving offence. (Indefinite present.)

405. Classification of Verbals According to Extent of Meaning. — Since every verbal belongs to the conjugation of some verb, and differs from it chiefly in its lack of asserting power, it goes without the saying that these words have the same classification as verbs. Participles and infinitives may be : —

1. Complete.

Ex. — To ride rapidly is exhilarating.

2. Incomplete.

a. Copula.

I hope to be better soon.

b. Copulative.

He seems to grow weaker.

c. Transitive.

To find fault continually is wrong.

d. Trans.-Copulative. To make the path straight was his task.

406. The Modifiers of Verbals are adverbs, and adverbial phrases and clauses.

Ex. — He writes rapidly.

I expect to stop at five o'clock.

We intend to stay until you come.

407. Omission of the Sign of the Infinitive. — In modern English the word *to* is not a preposition when used before an infinitive, but a mere *sign* which distinguishes the noun-form from the verb-form. It is omitted —

1. In all verb phrases, except when *ought* is used.

Ex. — I shall go ; but, I ought to go.

2. Commonly after the verbs bid, dare, feel, hear, let, make, need, see.

Determine with which of these it is proper to use *to*.

EXERCISE 42.

Give the exact name of these verbal phrases, distinguishing between participles and infinitives by their use.

Ex. — The time is too precious to be lost.

To be lost is the simple passive root infinitive phrase of the verb lose, used to modify the adverb *too*.

Ex. — Do you regret having done no more ?

Having done is the perfect gerundial phrase of the verb *do*. It is the object of the verb *regret*.

1. These are vessels for carrying corn.
2. He came to stay here for his health.
3. I thought him to have been unjustly treated.
4. They declared the child to be dying.
5. The rain having ceased to fall, we look for a rainbow.
6. Reaching for the bell-rope, I pulled it vigorously.
7. It is always best to tell the truth.
8. Do you regret having been left at home ?
9. They are supposed to have lost their way.
10. We believed it to be true.
11. He saw a star fall from heaven.

12. The news set all the bells ringing.
13. From having been king, he came at last to being supported by charity.
14. We need the money to pay the help.
15. We missed the performance by being out walking.
16. He taught his pupils to sing.
17. It is dangerous to be trifling with temptation.
18. He remembers having been associated with Jackson.
19. The receiver was accused of having been taking bribes.
20. Who would wish to be forgotten ?
21. It was discouraging not to have been kindly received.

408. Constructions of Infinitives. — This subject will be greatly simplified if the pupil studies to see the real substantive force of the infinitive in all its varied uses. There is but one construction in which it is difficult to see this, the adjective use, in which it seems to be limiting rather than substantive in force.

Ex. — They had the good fortune to escape.

409. Uses Common to the Two Infinitives. — Both infinitives may be used in the following constructions : —

1. Subject of verb.

Ex. — *Root infinitive.* To watch is his duty.
Gerund. Watching is his duty.

The root infinitive *only* is used as subject when an expletive precedes the verb.

Ex. — It is not difficult to die.

2. Object of a verb.

Ex. — *Root infinitive.* I like to read.
Gerund. I like reading.

Notice that with certain verbs either infinitive may be used in this way, while with others custom has decided that only one shall be used.

Ex. — I desire to go (not *going*).

I understand writing (not *to write*) on the typewriter.

3. Attribute complement.

Ex. — *Root infinitive.* The best way is to sell the farm.

Gerund. Seeing is believing.

This is a true substantive use only when it will answer the test of any predicate noun: Does it identify the subject, or refer to the same thing?

In the phrase, — I am writing, — *writing* is not the gerund, but the progressive participle.

In the phrase, — He is *to go*, — the infinitive is purely adjective, and has its closest resemblance to a participial use.

4. Object of a preposition.

Ex. — *Root infinitive.* He is about to graduate.

Gerund. He is fond of studying.

The root infinitive is used at present after only three prepositions: *about*, *except*, and *but* when it means *except*. In early English it was used after *for* also.

Ex. — What went ye out for to see?

The gerund may be used as the object of almost any preposition. Indeed, this is one of its commonest uses.

Ex. — He was paid for doing the work.

5. With an expressed subject in some objective relation.

An infinitive may be used with an expressed subject, the two forming a phrase used as the object of a preceding verb.

Ex. — I desired him to go.

It is evident that neither *him* nor *to go* alone expresses the whole object of the *desiring*: I do not desire *him* — quite the contrary; neither do *I* desire *to go*. The *two* elements are as essential to the formation of the object as they are when we expand the phrase *him to go* into a clause.

Ex. — I desired that he should go.

He bears the logical relation of subject to the act of *going* just as truly in the phrase-form as in the clause-form, the only difference being, that in the one case it is subject of an *assertion*, in the other, of an *assumption*.

The root infinitive is the form usually used in this construction, but the gerund is used after a few verbs, such as *see*, *hear*, *find*, etc.

Ex. — I hear a bird singing.

This use should not be confounded with the objective complement, which it superficially resembles.

410. A noun or pronoun used as the subject of the assumed action or condition of an infinitive is called the subject of that infinitive, and the phrase thus formed is always used in an objective relation to a preceding verb or preposition.

It will be seen that this is a double relation:—

1. As regards the infinitive, the noun is subjective.
2. As regards the preceding verb or preposition, it is objective.

The latter relation determines the case-form, which is always the objective. This constitutes the fifth construction of the noun. (See ART. 121.)

411. The infinitive, with its expressed subject, is sometimes used as the object of a preposition.

Ex. — I planned for him to go.
For him to go would be unfortunate.

412. Varied Relations of the Subject of the Infinitive.
— In the above example (ART. 409), the infinitive seemed equally important with its subject in forming the object of *desired*. With certain verbs, however, the infinitive *alone* forms the *direct object*, and the subject of the infinitive becomes the *indirect object*.

Ex. — I told him to go = I told to go to him.

Sometimes the subject seems to be the more important element, the infinitive sinking almost to the rank of an adjunct or attribute of it.

Ex. — I forced him to go.

But whatever the variation of meaning, the logical relation of *subject to the infinitive* is constant, and this gives the name to the construction. This construction must not be confused with one yet to be described, in which an infinitive follows a noun, in *any* construction, with the mere force of an appositive modifier.

Ex. — Summer is the time to visit Switzerland.

It must be observed that no subject for *to visit* is expressed; certainly "*time*" does not "*visit*." It would be a very mechanical worker who would make this error.

413. An Attribute Complement which is in the Objective Case. — When the infinitive of the copula has an expressed subject, its attribute complement, if a

substantive, is in the objective case, for this verb requires the same case after as before it.

Ex. — I knew it to be him.

414. Peculiarities of the Gerund.

1. The gerund shades into a pure abstract noun. When it is properly called the *infinitive*, it retains so much of its verb nature that it takes the verb complements and modifiers, although it performs the office of a noun.

Ex. — Seriously injuring the man was the only result.

But we frequently use it when the *active* meaning seems to have faded out of it, — when it simply names a condition, as any abstract noun would, and takes no complement, its modifiers being adjective, not adverbial.

Ex. — The serious injuring of the man was the only result.

It is hard to distinguish any real difference between injuring in this use and the true noun *injury*, which might better be substituted for it. This is a fine distinction, and not an important one, since the principal thing is to see the real *noun* nature of the gerund.

2. The Gerund in an Abridged Clause. — A subordinate clause is said to be abridged when it is contracted into a phrase.

The essential parts of a subordinate clause are : —

- a. The connective (which expresses the relation).
- b. The subject.
- c. The predicate.

One form of abridgment is that in which the following changes occur :

- a. The connective is dropped.
- b. The assertive part of the predicate is dropped, the gerund of the verb taking its place in some noun-use.
- c. The subject is subordinated to the verbal idea, becoming a modifier of it. To do this it must take the adjective form of the noun, the possessive case.

Ex. — Complex sentence — That Mary met them was fortunate.
 Abridged sentence — Mary's meeting them was fortunate.

Notice: that, while in the clause-form the subject and verb are equally important, in the abridged phrase the remnant of the predicate (the gerund) is the more important element, the original subject being a modifier of it.

415. A Possessive Modifier, which in a substantive clause would be the subject, and which in the abridged phrase still names the actor of the assumed act of the gerund, is called a *subjective possessive*. This is the only exception to the law that infinitives take *adverbial*, not adjective modifiers.

416. Abridgment is the process of turning a complex or compound sentence into a simple one by dropping the connective and asserting elements of a clause, and keeping its principal ideas in a phrase form.

EXERCISE 43.

Give the abridged form of these complex sentences, explaining every change that occurs in them.

1. They insisted that he should follow them.
2. It was a lucky thing that you were here.
3. The candidates felt sure that they would be elected.

4. That he was a child was his only excuse.
5. That you were ill makes no difference.
6. I have no hope that the weather will improve.
7. I am not sure that I will come.
8. I am sure that he is a teacher.

417. Constructions Peculiar to the Root Infinitive. —

The constructions common to the two infinitives have now been described, but there remain two uses in which the root infinitive only is employed.

418. The Sixth Use of the Root Infinitive is its value as an appositive modifier of a noun (Construction VI., *b.*). This is the one case in which the infinitive fails fully to justify our conception of it as a *noun*. In this use it is more like an appositive adjective than a noun; for it does not, like the noun in apposition, refer to the same thing as the modified noun, but expresses a single attribute or limitation of it, usually the *purpose* for which the object is adapted.

Ex. — The hothouse is a trap to catch sunbeams.
You have a problem to solve.

419. The Seventh Use of the Root Infinitive. — The root infinitive is often used with the value of an adverbial noun (Construction VII.), to modify an adjective or verb by expressing purpose, intent, or consequence.

Ex. — He came to talk business with me.
He was always ready to help me.
The wounded bird was too weak to move.

In this use the sign *to* seems to have something of its original force as a preposition meaning *unto*, *for*, or *in order to*.

420. Summary of Infinitive Constructions.

- | | | |
|--------|----------------|---|
| I. | <i>Root.</i> | It is not all of death <i>to die</i> . |
| | <i>Gerund.</i> | <i>Sailing</i> the boat was the best fun. |
| II. a. | <i>Root.</i> | I hope <i>to see</i> you soon. |
| | <i>Gerund.</i> | He detests <i>fishing</i> . |
| III. | <i>Root.</i> | To lie is <i>to deceive</i> intentionally. |
| | <i>Gerund.</i> | Cramming is <i>taking</i> more than one can digest. |
| IV. | <i>Root.</i> | There is nothing to do but <i>to go on</i> . |
| | <i>Gerund.</i> | I am fond of <i>boating</i> . |
| II. a. | | With an expressed subject in Construction V. |
| | <i>Root.</i> | I ordered <i>him to be</i> off. |
| | <i>Gerund.</i> | I found <i>her weeping</i> . |
| VI. b. | <i>Root.</i> | Rooms <i>to rent</i> were scarce. |
| VII. | <i>Root.</i> | We eat <i>to live</i> . |

PARTICIPLES.

421. Participles have been fully discussed as Verbal Adjectives. Review ARTS. 209, 210, 266, 267.

422. Participial Phrases.—The participial phrases are the same in *form* as the gerund phrases (ART. 401), because the progressive participles of *have* and *be*, which are their leaders, have the same form as the gerunds of those verbs. They are to be distinguished from gerund phrases only by their adjective uses.

They are repeated here: —

<i>Progressive.</i>	loving.
<i>Perfect.</i>	loved.
<i>Perfect Active.</i>	having loved.
<i>Perfect Progressive.</i>	having been loving.
<i>Simple Passive.</i>	being loved.
<i>Perfect Passive.</i>	having been loved.

423. Participial Constructions.—With one exception, the uses of participles have been fully explained under Adjective Constructions, ARTS. 228-236, inclusive.

They will be summarized here with illustrations. Both participles may be used :

1. As Attributive Adjectives.

a. Prog. The growing crops need rain.

b. Perfect. The burnt child dreads the fire.

This is the use in which the participle most resembles the pure adjective; for it takes no complement, and can readily be turned into an adverb by the addition of the adverbial suffix *ly*.

Ex. — Strikingly.

The participial phrases are not used attributively.

A few perfect participles, when used attributively, have the *ed* ending pronounced as an extra syllable :

Ex. — A blessed comfort. A learned man. An aged woman.

In the case of some verbs which have two participles, the old participle is used as an attributive adjective, and the later form as a predicate or appositive adjective.

Ex. — A drunken sailor ; but, The sailor is drunk.

A swollen finger. The finger is swelled.

2. As a Predicate Adjective.

a. Attribute Complement.

Prog. We were singing.

Perfect. They were injured.

Remember that every progressive verb phrase furnishes an example of a progressive participle used in this way, and that every passive phrase contains a perfect participle used in the same way.

b. Objective Complement.

Prog. She kept me waiting.

Perfect. I will have you punished.

The progressive participles after the verbs *see* and *hear* are often disposed of as objective complements,—

Ex. — I heard him whistling. I saw him coming, —

but they do not stand the test of an objective complement. They are really parts of the *direct object*. *Him* is best disposed of as the expressed subject of a gerund, and the entire phrases, *him to be whistling* and *him to be coming*, as the direct object of the verbs *heard* and *saw*.

c. Adverbial Complement.

Prog. She came laughing.

Perfect. The bird lies injured.

3. As an Appositive Adjective.

a. As an ordinary appositive, modifying a noun used in a regular construction.

Prog. The thief, seeing me, fled.

Perfect. I picked up some apples injured by the frost.

b. As an appositive modifying an independent noun in an absolute phrase.

Prog. The masons, finishing their work, the carpenters began the superstructure.

Perfect. This said, I sat down.

424. The Absolute Construction. — As was explained in ART. 415, 2, a complex sentence may be abridged by dropping the connective and assertive elements.

If, in the sentence,

When the work was finished, we went home,

we drop the connective *when*, the subject and predicate are left independent, or without connection.

If we replace the *assertive form*, *was*, by the *assuming form*, *being*, the phrase *being finished* becomes an

The grammatical independence of the phrase is shown by setting it off by a comma.

427. Indefiniteness of the Absolute Construction. — The fact that the connective must be mentally supplied by the reader or hearer, creates a certain vagueness in this construction. For example, the sentence, —

Troy being destroyed, Æneas came into Italy,
may mean, —

Æneas came because Troy was destroyed,
or, —

Æneas came when Troy was destroyed.

It should therefore be used with care, and only when it is certain that the exact meaning intended is conveyed by it.

428. The Absolute Construction Confused with an Ordinary Appositive. — Many pupils fail to distinguish between a participle which modifies the subject of the sentence, —

Ex. — Mary, reaching for her book, opened it at the right place,
and one used in an absolute phrase.

Remember that the *recognition* of the *independence* of the modified noun *must precede* the decision that the construction is absolute, for it is a part of the *basis* of the decision.

429. The Substantive Use of Participles. — If it were granted that participles could naturally be used as substantives, the distinction between gerunds and participles would break down at once. Any pure adjective

may become a substantive if its noun is suppressed and it is left to do the work.

Ex. — The poor (persons) are always with us.

The young (people) enjoy life keenly.

In the same way, the participles may take the place of the modified noun, but the attributive force is always stronger than the substantive force.

Ex. — The sorrowing were comforted.

The wounded were taken to the hospital.

The substantive, *people*, plainly underlies these words; and it is their descriptive force which impresses us, not the fact that they are the only expressed subjects of the statements.

430. Directions for Parsing Verbals. — To parse an infinitive, participle, or one of their phrases:—

1. Name it; state:—

a. Which infinitive or which participle.

b. Whether it is simple, progressive, perfect, or passive.

2. State to what verb it belongs.

3. Classify it as complete, copula, copulative, transitive, or copulative-transitive.

4. Give its construction.

All this can usually be included in a single sentence.

Ex. — The pass having been received, I can go to-morrow.

Having been received is the perfect, passive participial phrase of the transitive verb *receive*, used appositively to modify the absolute noun *pass*.

Ex. — I hope to merit your approval.

To merit is the simple root infinitive of the transitive verb *merit*, used in Construction II. (a), object of the verb *hope*.

EXERCISE 44.

Turn the following complex sentences into simple ones, explaining every change that occurs, and giving all the characteristics (ART. 425) of the absolute constructions which you form.

1. Because our time was occupied, we could not see our visitor.
2. We abandoned our journey when a new danger arose.
3. Corn was cheap, so we used it for fuel.
4. When the clouds parted, we saw the sun.
5. When the storm arose, we were driven into the harbor.
6. When the front gave way, the rear guard of his army retreated.
7. Because his money was squandered, he was obliged to go to work again.
8. We retreated when the enemy attacked us.
9. When quiet was restored, the speaker continued his discourse.
10. If the weather permits, we shall start to-morrow.

EXERCISE 45.

Parse all verbs and verbals.

1. Having been promised great wealth, they almost regretted having kept their farms so long, and were annoyed at being compelled to remain upon them longer.
2. The mountain streams went babbling by.
3. It is always safe to learn, even from our enemies.
4. Let man, who hopes to be forgiven,
 Forgive and bless his foe.
5. Making promises is not keeping them.
6. The firm expects to be moving out to-morrow.
7. Sir Launfal flashed forth in his unscarred mail,
 To seek in all climes for the Holy Grail.
8. He was about to return to his native land.
9. Shall you have time to come to bid us farewell ?
10. To persevere in one's duty and be silent is the best answer to calumny.
11. The jury believed him to be guilty.
12. The atrocious crime of being a young man I shall attempt neither to palliate nor deny.

220 *THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE AND ITS GRAMMAR.*

13. I suppose it to have been him.
14. There's never a blade nor a leaf too mean
 To be some happy creature's palace.
15. Beautiful feet are they that go
 Swiftly to lighten another's woe.
16. Buying goods on credit has caused him to fail.
17. At the beginning of summer, when the planting was finished,
we found the farming population busy with haying.
18. Having often seen him passing, I reasoned that the nest was
near.
19. Leaves have their time to fall.
20. The rain having ceased to fall, we look for a rainbow.
21. I'll have thee hanged to feed the crows.
22. The French having been dispersed in a gale, had to put back
to Toulon.
23. The melting Phœbe stood wringing her hands.

CHAPTER XV.

THE CONSTRUCTIONS OF THE ENGLISH SENTENCE.

431. The regular constructions of the sentence have now been discussed; but they will be gathered up here, partly in the way of review, and partly as a necessary phase of a scientific treatment of the subject. It is not enough for a pupil to be able to recognize and describe a given construction; he must know *all* the legitimate ways of expressing thought, that he may constantly choose the best for his purpose, and reject all others.

432. The Subject may be any substantive expression which can embody the subject idea of thought.

1. A noun or pronoun.

Ex. — The leaves are changing color.
These are not suitable.

2. Any other part of speech used substantively :

Ex. — The great are often to be pitied.
Now is the accepted time.
The ins and outs of this machine can be understood only
by a mechanic

3. An infinitive (which might be included under 1, but which is something more than a noun).

Ex. — To say he is a failure is putting it strongly.
Dreaming is not achieving.

4. A phrase.

Ex. — *Over the Tea-cups* is the title of a book.

5. A clause.

Ex. — “What we are,” not “what we have,” is asked here.

433. The Bare Predicate is as much of a sentence as is required to express the thought-attribute and the copula or thought-relation. It may be: —

1. A complete verb: —

Ex. — The day dawned at last.

2. An incomplete verb and its complement.

a. Copula + an attribute complement.

A soft haze was in the atmosphere.

b. Copulative verb + an attribute complement.

Life seemed brighter after this change.

c. Transitive verb + a direct object.

They sold berries.

d. Transitive-copulative verb + an object + an objective complement.

We will make him our guide.

434. The Modifiers of the Subject are the descriptive or limiting elements of it. They may consist of: —

1. An adjective.

Ex. — Great oaks from little acorns grow.

2. A possessive noun or pronoun.

Ex. — The man's heart failed him.

Their boats were scattered.

3. A noun or pronoun in apposition.

Ex. — The pick, the most important instrument, was forgotten.

Alice, she whom we all loved, was taken.

4. A phrase.

a. Prepositional, —

No treatise on the subject could be found.

b. Participial, —

Having spent our money, we borrowed.

c. Infinitive, —

The will to do right is the chief moral element.

435. The Modifiers of the Predicate may be any descriptive or limiting element of an attribute.

1. An adverb : —

Ex. — We rode slowly over the stones.

2. An adverbial substantive : —

a. A Noun expressing measure.

Four times we heard the startling sound.

b. An Infinitive expressing purpose, intent, consequence.

We met to contrive some means of raising the debt.

c. An Indirect Object.

I gave mother my share.

3. An adverbial phrase : —

Ex. — The ship was wrecked on the beach.

4. An adverbial clause : —

Ex. — We have met that we may become better friends.

436. A Noun in any Construction may take the same modifiers which it can take as subject.

437. An Adjective may be used : —

1. Attributively.

Ex. — Gentle rains refreshed the flowers.

2. Appositively.

Ex. — For these reasons, avowed and secret, no action was taken.

3. Predicatively.

a. Attribute complement.

Children are **very** sensitive.

b. Objective complement.

He painted the fence **white**.

c. Adverbial complement.

Night came **stealing** on.

438. The Adverb may be used to modify : —

1. A verb.

Ex. — You must **speak** distinctly.

2. An adjective.

Ex. — You have made a **very** serious mistake.

3. An adverb.

Ex. — You walk **so** slowly that you will be late.

4. A preposition.

Ex. — The house stood **exactly** in the line of the storm.

5. A conjunction.

Ex. — He failed **just** as I expected.

439. Propositions, as to Rank, may be : —

1. Independent.

Ex. — I do good work, **and** I am conscious of it.

2. Dependent (clause).

Ex. — I am conscious **that** I do good work.

440. Clauses, as to Construction, may be : —

1. Adjective.

Ex. — We strive to acquire the qualities that we **admire**.

2. Adverbial.

Ex. — She never frets **when** she is disappointed.

3. Substantive.

Ex. — I saw that his feelings were hurt.

441. Adverbial Clauses, as to Meaning, may be:—

1. Clauses of Time.

Ex. — Go when you can.

2. Clauses of Place.

Ex. — Go where you will.

3. Clauses of Cause.

Ex. — I like you because you try.

4. Clauses of Condition.

Ex. — If you go, you will be sorry.

5. Clauses of Concession

Ex. — He bore the pain, though he wanted to cry.

6. Clauses of Purpose.

Ex. — We study, that we may improve.

7. Clauses of Comparison.

Ex. — To-day is as warm as yesterday was.

442. Phrases are classified in two ways; first by their structure, second by their uses. The second of the two classifications is the more important.

1. According to *structure*, phrases are named from their leaders.

a. Prepositional Phrase.

He is in the house.

b. Infinitive Phrase.

He hoped to be promoted.

c. Participial Phrase.

Having seen him before, I easily recognized him.

2. According to *use*, phrases may be : —

a. Noun or Substantive.

Peter the Great was a reformer.

Out of sight is out of mind.

b. Pronoun.

Children, love one another.

c. Adjective.

The little farm in the valley.

d. Adverbial.

She fell on the rough pavement.

e. Verb phrase.

We have finished.

f. Conjunction phrase.

Mary as well as Julia went.

g. Preposition phrase.

He was insolvent according to the last statement.

443. The Independent Elements of a Sentence may be : —

1. A Noun in Address.

Ex. — Now, children, get to work.

2. A substantive used in Pleonasm or Exclamation.

Ex. — To be, or not to be, that is the question.

Thé boy ! Oh, where was he ?

3. An Absolute Phrase.

Ex. — The children having finished their lessons, we may start at once.

4 An Infinitive Phrase.

Ex. — To tell the truth, I am sleepy.

5. A Participle.

Ex. — Speaking seriously, what are your plans ?

6. The Interjections.

Ex. — Oh ! how sad it was.

444. Compound Elements. — Any two elements in the sentence may be compounded by uniting them by a coördinating conjunction.

- Ex.** — Two subjects — Boys and girls played together.
 Two verbs — This dog barks, but does not bite.
 Two objects — He buys horses and cattle.
 Two adjectives — A beautiful and costly picture.

445. Clauses of Addition. — The relative pronouns, besides their use in clauses that restrict the meaning of the noun, are sometimes used to add what is virtually a new fact, not a modifier of the noun to which the pronoun refers. In such a case, the pronoun is equivalent to a coördinating conjunction and a pronoun; the clause has not the value of a part of speech, and is, therefore, a clause only in appearance.

Ex. — He was given his board, which (and this) was all that could be expected.

It follows that the sentence is complex only in form, being compound in meaning.

Sometimes the pronoun refers to the previous statement, not to any particular word in it.

Ex. — He said that his will was weak, which (and this) I heartily agreed to.

This is the line upon which the complex and the compound sentence shade into each other.

Such a non-restrictive clause is called a clause of addition, or an additive clause; and the sentence in which it stands is to be described as complex in *form*, but compound in *force*.

446. Parallel Constructions. — The richness and variety of our language are shown in the large number of equivalent constructions.

1. The idea of ownership may be expressed by : —
 - a. The Possessive Case, — George's home.
 - b. A Prepositional Phrase, — The home of George.
2. The Indirect Receiver of the Act may be expressed by : —
 - a. The Indirect Object, — Give *me* the pencil.
 - b. A Prepositional Phrase, — Give the pencil *to me*.
3. An Attribute may be expressed by : —
 - a. An Attributive Adjective, — A *wise* man.
 - b. An Appositive Adjective, — A man, *wise* and true.
 - c. A Predicate Adjective, — The man is *wise*.
 - d. A Prepositional Phrase, — A man of *wisdom*.
 - e. A Clause, — A man *who is wise*.
4. The Adverbial Idea of Time may be expressed by : —
 - a. An Adverb, — It stood there *then*.
 - b. A Phrase, — It stood there *at that time*.
 - c. A Clause, — It stood there *when I was young*.
5. The Idea of Purpose may be expressed by : —
 - a. The Root Infinitive of Purpose, — He lit the match *to see it burn*.
 - b. An Adverbial Clause of Purpose, — He lit the match, *that he might see it burn*.
6. A Causal Idea may be expressed by : —
 - a. An Adverbial Clause, — We started *because the rain had ceased*.
 - b. An Independent Absolute Phrase, — *The rain having ceased*, we started.
7. A Subject may be expressed by : —
 - a. A Substantive Clause, — *That I was here* was a fortunate thing.
 - b. A Gerund with a Subjective Possessive Modifier, — *My being here* was a fortunate thing.

8. An Object of a Verb may be expressed by : —

- a. A Substantive Clause, — I asked *that he should be here*.
- b. A Root Infinitive with its expressed subject, — I asked *him to be here*.

447. The Varied Use of Words in English. — The fact that *use* decides *classification* has had constant emphasis, but a brief survey of the words most widely used will further illustrate the point.

Above.

1. Preposition, — The picture hung *above* the shelf.
2. Adverb, — The captain went *above*.
3. Noun, — The light showed from *above*.
4. Adjective, — Inquire at the house *above*.

All.

1. Pronoun, — *All* laughed merrily.
2. Adjective, — *All* men are mortal.
3. Noun, — He ventured his *all* on the turn of a card.
4. Adverb, — My work is *all* wrong.

As.

1. Relative Pronoun, — Take such *as* are ripe.
2. Causal Conjunction, — *As* you are here, you may stay.
3. Temporal Conjunction, — I left just *as* he came.
4. Conjunction of Comparison, — You are as old *as* I am.
5. Adverb of Degree, — You are *as* old as I am.
6. Conjunction of Manner, — Do *as* you think best.
7. Appositional Connective, — I employed her *as* governess.
8. As part of a Preposition Phrase, — *As* for him he may go.
9. As part of a Conjunction Phrase, — The children *as* well as the adults went.

Both.

1. Coördinating Conjunction, — *Both* John and Mary went.
2. Pronoun, — *Both* accepted.
3. Adjective, — *Both* children were injured.

Better.

1. Verb, — He *bettered* his condition by changing.
2. Noun, — The rich are not necessarily our *bettters*.
3. Adverb, — We will do *better* next time.
4. Adjective, — The patient is *better*.

But.

1. Coördinating Conjunction, — He is very ill, *but* he is improving.
2. Preposition, — Whence all *but* him had fled.
3. Adverb, — He is *but* an indifferent student.
4. Conjunctive Pronoun, — There's not a man *but* knows it.

Fast.

1. Verb, — Some people *fast* in lent.
2. Noun, — Dr. Tanner's *fast* lasted forty days.
3. Adjective, — The *fast* mail is now due.
4. Adverb, — The rain fell *fast*.

Like.

1. Noun, — The *like* has seldom been seen.
2. Verb, — I *like* you.
3. Adjective, — *Like* causes produce *like* results.
4. Adverb, — She looked *like* me.

Only.

1. Adjective, — *Only* men can vote.
2. Adverb, — I went *only* to the corner.
3. Coördinating Conjunction, — It will answer, *only* it is small.

Since.

1. Adverb, — I have not seen her *since*.
2. Preposition, — *Since* that time, we have not spoken
3. Causal Conjunction, — *Since* you can solve the problem, you may do so.
4. Temporal Conjunction, — *Since* you left, I have been ill.

Still.

1. Adverb, — The oak *still* stands.
2. Adjective, — The stone fell into the *still* water.
3. Noun, — In the *still* of night, the peal rang out.
4. Coördinating Conjunction, — It is small, *still* it will do.
5. Verb, — He *stills* the noisy sea.

Than.

1. Preposition, — *Than* whom, Satan excepted, no higher sat.
2. Conjunction of Comparison, — You are older *than* I.

That.

1. Noun, — The *that's* should be restrictive.
2. Relative Pronoun, — The man *that* I mean.

3. Demonstrative Pronoun, — *That* is what I mean.
4. Conjunction of Purpose, — We try *that* we may succeed.
5. Demonstrative Adjective, — *That* man is dishonest.
6. Substantive Conjunction, — *That* I have injured him is true.

Then.

1. Noun, — Since *then* he has done better.
2. Adverb, — *Then* I told what I thought.
3. Adjective, — The *then* ruler.
4. Coördinating Conjunction, — Are you ready ? *then* come on.

There.

1. Expletive, — *There* were twenty people present.
2. Adverb, — Lay it *there*.
3. Adjective, — We were *there* five minutes.
4. Interjection, — *There ! there !* child !

What.

1. Conjunctive Pronoun, — I know *what* you said.
2. Conjunctive Adjective, — I know *what* labor he had.
3. Interrogative Pronoun, — *What* do you want ?
4. Interrogative Adjective, — *What* books are these ?
5. Interjection, — *What !* can these be all ?
6. Correlative Conjunction, — *What* with hard work, *what* with saving, I have managed to live.

Which.

1. Interrogative Pronoun, — *Which* did you take ?
2. Interrogative Adjective, — *Which* book do you see ?
3. Relative Pronoun, — The book *which* I wanted.
4. Conjunctive Adjective, — I know *which* book you took.

While.

1. Noun, — We were very quiet for a *while*.
2. Temporal Conjunction, — We talked *while* we rested.
3. Coördinating Conjunction, — They are light, *while* we are dark.
4. Verb, — It will *while* away a tedious hour.

Who.

1. Relative Pronoun, — The boy *who* struck me ran.
2. Interrogative Pronoun, — *Who* did it ?
3. Indefinite Conjunctive Pronoun, — *Who* steals my purse steals trash.

448. Some Difficult or Idiomatic Constructions.

1. Two times two *is* or *are* four ?

Either form is correct, according to the interpretation of the subject : if it is taken to mean, "The product of two things taken two times," the proper verb is *is* ; if it is construed, "Two things taken two times," the verb must be plural.

2. *Idiomatic Use of the Possessive Case.* — The possessive case is sometimes used idiomatically, as the object of a preposition :

Ex. — That is a book of my *brother's*.

3. *So and Do as Substitutes.* — *So* is often used as a substitute for an attribute or other limiting element, which has appeared earlier in the sentence :

Ex. — They tell me that I am sick, but I do not think so (that I am sick).

In the same way, the verb *do* is used to avoid repetition of another verb.

Ex. — I work more hours than you do (work).

4. *Near, Nigh, Next, and Like.* — These words were originally followed by a dative case when used as adjectives and adverbs. In modern English, the preposition *to* or *unto*, which governs the objective case which now follows them, is seldom expressed. There seems no sufficient reason why they should not be classed as prepositions, so long as we distinguish that class of words at all.

Ex. — She sat next him.

5. *Many a* is an idiomatic phrase with a plural signification which is yet made to modify a singular noun. It has a certain distributive force :

Ex. — Full many a flower is born to blush unseen.

6. *The Imperative Verb Phrase.* — *Let* is a very incomplete transitive auxiliary, followed by an infinitive and its expressed subject, the phrase forming the object of *let*.

Ex. — Let me go.

It seems to take the place of a lacking first and third person of the true imperative, expressing the will of the speaker just as the true imperative does :

Ex. —	Let me go.	<i>First person.</i>
	Go thou.	<i>Second person.</i>
	Let him go.	<i>Third person.</i>

It is best treated as a unit, and parsed as an idiomatic imperative verb phrase.

7. *Construction of But, meaning Except.*

Ex. — Whence all but *he* or *him* had fled ?

The preponderance of authority, though not a shadow of logic, is on the side of those who would call *but* a conjunction, and, of course, make the pronoun nominative. This is a manifest absurdity. If “he had not fled,” “all” had not fled. *But* is here a preposition, which, like *except*, shows that its object is excepted from what is included in the limited word.

8. *The Optative Verb Phrase.* — Since it has been the tendency to discard the subjunctive mode, it has become common to replace the simple optative subjunctive, —

Thy will be done,

by an optative verb phrase with *may* as auxiliary :

May heaven help him, for “Heaven help him.”

449. Sequence of Tenses. — It is very important that the time relations be correctly expressed in the various parts of the sentence. This is a matter of some difficulty, especially in dependent clauses and infinitive phrases, in which cases the tense is to be decided relatively to the principal assertion, not absolutely in itself.

1. General truths are timeless, and hence require the present tense, whatever the accompanying tenses may be.

Ex. — I believed that honesty is the best policy.

2. *Should*, *would*, and all the potential and obligative auxiliaries, are used in principal statements with indefinite tense significations; but *should* and *would* bear to *shall* and *will* the relation of a past to a present tense; and *might* and *could* bear the same relation to *may* and *can*. This fact explains some peculiarities in their uses.

- a. In a dependent clause, *shall*, *will*, *may*, and *can* naturally follow a present or a future tense, expressing a time future to the principal tense.

Ex. — Mother says we may go.

Do you think we can go?

We will go if we can.

- b. In a dependent clause, *should*, *would*, *might*, and *could* naturally follow a past tense, but express *future time* relatively to it.

Ex. — She said we might go.

Did you think we could go?

- c. *Must* and *ought* have no variation of tense form or meaning, and follow either present or past tenses.

Ex. — Do you think that we must go?

I thought that I ought to go.

3. In a dependent clause, the present perfect phrase naturally follows a present tense, —

Ex. — I see that I have made a mistake,
but it may follow a future tense when the connective implies future time.

Ex. — I will go when I have finished.

4. A past perfect phrase is used to throw the completion of an act back of a definite past time, expressed or implied. This definite point of past time is usually expressed by a simple past tense, in a dependent clause.

Ex. — I had finished the work before you came.

In a dependent clause, it naturally follows a past tense.

Ex. — I saw that I had made a mistake.

5. The root infinitive in itself implies indefinite future time; and when used after a principal tense, it expresses future time relatively to that.

Ex. — I want to go.
I intended to go.

6. The use of the perfect infinitive phrase throws the completion of the act back of the time expressed by the principal verb, or by an adverbial adjunct.

Ex. — He is supposed to have gone to Chicago.
I intended to have finished the work before this date.
To have accomplished the work is all that is necessary.

7. With the verb *like*, the infinitive is often made perfect when the sense requires the perfect form of the principal verb.

Ex. — I should like to have gone; instead of,
I should have liked to go.

This is possibly because of the difficulty in pronouncing *liked to*.

CHAPTER XVI.

THE DIAGRAM.

450. Its Use and Abuse. — The use of the diagram in analysis has been so perverted that with many teachers it has fallen into disrepute. Its supporters have relied upon it so exclusively as a means of expression that they seem to have regarded it as “A device of genius to make genius unnecessary.”

A true system of analysis should foster, not stultify genius.

A diagram is a strictly mechanical device, and should never usurp the function of the mind, or in any way hamper its action. It should be an aid to the teacher rather than to the pupil. After the intellectual power to discriminate and analyze has been acquired, the diagram has a certain modest value in enabling the teacher to test the knowledge of many pupils with a minimum of effort, or in enabling a student to display much knowledge in a minimum of time. In the hands of the teacher, it has also some value in furnishing concrete illustration of difficult relations; but as a daily practice, or as a method of mastering a lesson, it is pernicious in the extreme. It robs the pupil of the keen enjoyment which accompanies rapid perception, it keeps in undue prominence the symbols of thought, and pre-

vents the drill in oral expression which should accompany the logical analysis of the sentence.

Because, however, of the slight value which has been acknowledged, a few general characteristics of a good diagram will be pointed out, and a simple form presented. Any well-taught pupil who has mastered the intellectual difficulties of the sentence will have the ingenuity to make a diagram which will express his thoughts.

451. Principles Which Should Determine the Form of a Diagram. — The diagram should expound, not obscure the thought, therefore, —

1. The scheme should be as simple as possible.
2. The various elements should be written on horizontal lines, as we are accustomed to read them.
3. The unity and essential character of the base should be indicated by writing it upon a single horizontal line.
4. The connection of a complement with the verb should be shown by writing it on the same line; and the three complements should be distinguished by lines which show their respective allegiance to subject, verb, or object.
5. Coördination is best shown by preserving a common margin.
6. Subordination is best shown by indentation.
7. Simple phrases should appear as units in a diagram.
8. Dependent clauses should be so displayed as to appear as elements in the main statement.

The following diagrams will illustrate the above principles, and will sufficiently explain themselves.

452. The good old mayor climbed the belfry tower.

mayor	climbed	tower
the		the
good		belfry
old		

453. Livingston and Hancock were gentlemen of the old school.

Livingston	and	Hancock	were	gentlemen	of the old school.
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454. He soon made himself proficient in the art of printing.

He	made	proficient	himself
	soon	in the art of printing.	

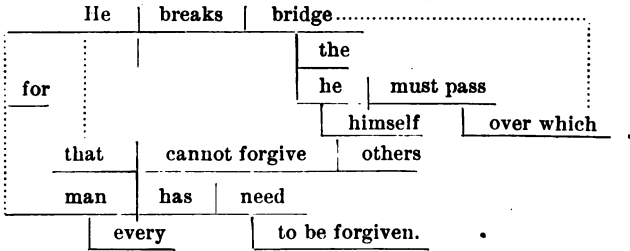
455. At the opening of the thirteenth century Oxford took and held rank with the greatest schools of Europe.

Oxford	took	rank	with the greatest schools of Europe
	(and)		at the opening of the thirteenth century.
	held		

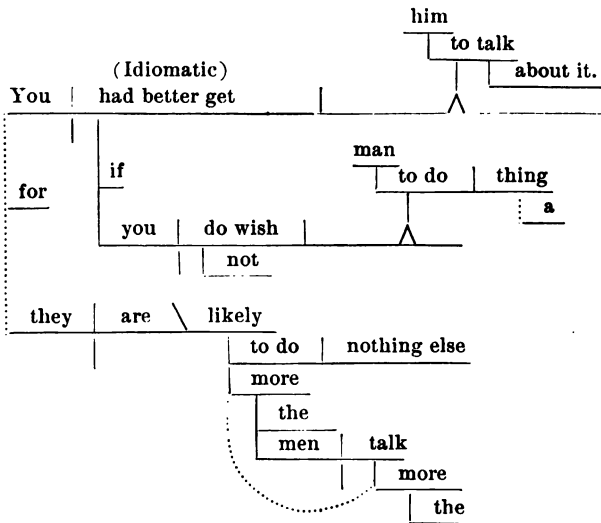
456. That the earth is a sphere is easily proved.

That	earth	is	sphere	is proved
	the		a	easily.

457. He that cannot forgive others breaks the bridge over which he must pass himself; for every man has need to be forgiven.



458. If you do not wish a man to do a thing, you had better get him to talk about it; for the more men talk, the more likely are they to do nothing else.



452. The good old mayor climbed the belfry tower.

mayor	climbed	tower
the		the
good		belfry
old		

453. Livingston and Hancock were gentlemen of the old school.

Livingston		were	gentlemen	
and				of the old school.
Hancock				

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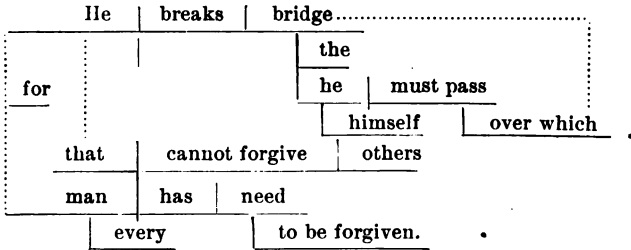
455. At the opening of the thirteenth century Oxford took and held rank with the greatest schools of Europe.

Oxford	took	rank	
	(and)		with the greatest schools of Europe
	held		at the opening of the thirteenth century.

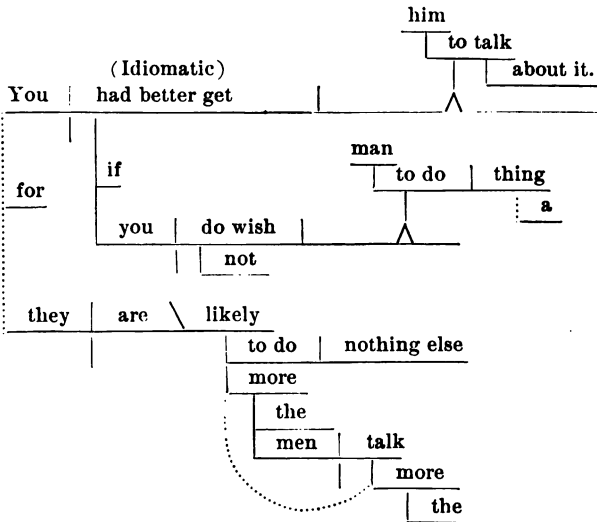
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That	earth	is	sphere	
the			a	is proved
				easily.

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CHAPTER XVII.

CAPITALIZATION AND PUNCTUATION.

NOTE TO TEACHER. — This chapter is added for reference mainly, as it is presumed that earlier language work has established the habit of correct writing so far as mechanical features are concerned.

461. A capital letter should be used to begin: —

1. Every sentence.
2. Every direct quotation.
3. Every line of poetry.
4. Every individual name of person, place, or thing.

Ex. — Mary, Alabama, Sirius.

5. Every proper adjective.

Ex. — American.

6. Every abbreviation of a proper noun.

Ex. — Geo.

7. Every name applied to Deity, and usually a pronoun referring to God.

Ex. — In His sight.

8. Principal words in titles.

Ex. — Gibbon's *The Decline and Fall of Rome*.

9. The words O and I.

462. The usual marks used to separate the parts of a sentence are: the Comma (,), the Semicolon (;), and the Colon (:).

463. The comma is used to separate : —

1. Independent structures.

a. A noun in address.

Ex. — Children, obey your parents

b. An absolute noun.

Ex. — The key being lost, we could not open the door.

c. Any independent or introductory phrase.

Ex. — To tell the truth, I was mistaken.

2. Transposed adjective and adverbial elements.

Ex. — Having walked rapidly, we were very tired.

Five days later, a new complication arose.

3. A series of elements in the same construction.

Ex. — There hung a large, beautiful, lifelike portrait.

The men who lived so nobly, who fought so bravely, who died so gloriously, were all our brothers.

4. An appositive expression, whether noun or adjective.

Ex. — The Leaning Tower, one of the wonders of the world, is numbered among the attractions of Pisa.

5. The parts of a compound sentence when the conjunction is expressed, and when the clauses are unbroken by commas.

Ex. — Summer is waning, and the nights are growing longer.

6. A direct quotation when not formally introduced.

Ex. — And whisper with white lips, " They come, they come ! "

7. A non-restrictive or merely descriptive clause.

Ex. — I gave her my lunch, which she greatly enjoyed.

A restrictive clause is not so separated from its noun.

Ex. — The competitor that wins this prize must show great skill.

464. The semicolon separates :—

1. The parts of a compound sentence when no conjunction is expressed.

Ex. — Dare to be true ; nothing can need a lie.

2. The parts of a compound sentence which are themselves broken by commas.

Ex. — What is done for effect, is seen to be done for effect ; what is done for love, is seen to be done for love.

3. The conjunctions, viz., as, namely, etc., from the previous statement, when they are used to connect a series of particulars.

Ex. — The American flag consists of three colors ; namely, red, white, and blue.

465. The colon separates :—

1. Matter formally introduced.

Ex. — Mr. Blaine was introduced, and spoke as follows :—

2. A formal address.

Ex. — Mr. President : We are met here, etc.

466. The final pauses are: the Period (.), the Interrogation Point (?), the Exclamation Point (!).

467. The period is used :—

1. To close every declarative or imperative sentence.
2. After an abbreviation, — LL.D., Mr., Mrs.
3. As a decimal point, — 5.2.

Headings, titles, and numerals of items in tabulations, which once were followed by periods, are now frequently written without punctuation.

Ex. — History

- 1 The Colonial Period
- 2 The Confederation
- 3 The Constitutional Period

468. The interrogation point is used: —

1. To close an interrogative sentence.
2. When enclosed in parentheses, to indicate uncertainty.

Ex. — The gold reserve, \$1,000,000 (?), is rapidly melting away.

469. The exclamation point is used: —

1. To close an exclamatory sentence.
2. After an interjection.

Ex. — What ! was the entire party lost ?

3. When enclosed in parentheses to indicate a sneer.

Ex. — And now this deeply injured person (!) demands damages.

470. The dash is used: —

1. To denote a break in the thought connection:

Ex. — Caesar had his Brutus ; Charles I his Cromwell ; and George IV — had better profit by their example.

2. To represent a number of means between two given extremes:

Ex. — Take Exercises 5–15.

In youth — somewhere between childhood and manhood — there is commonly a striking development of the imagination.

3. In preference to commas or curves, to enclose a parenthesis.

Ex. — These boulders — so they tell us — are remains of the glacial age.

4. With a comma, in preference to a colon, to separate a formal address.

Ex. — Dear Father, —

471. Quotation marks (“ ”) are used to enclose any matter which is exactly repeated.

A quotation within a quotation should be included in single marks.

Ex. — “ Yes,” said the old man, “ I believe that ‘ all work and no play makes Jack a dull boy.’ ”

If a quotation is broken into parts by the introduction of other words, each part should be enclosed in quotation marks.

If a quotation includes several paragraphs, marks should be placed at the beginning of each, but at the end of the last one only.

472. The Hyphen (-) is used : —

1. To separate the parts of certain compound words.
2. At the end of a line to carry a syllable to the next line.

473. The Apostrophe (’) is used : —

1. As the sign of the possessive case, — John’s.
2. To mark the omission of a letter or letters, — ’Tis.
3. As a sign of the plural of letters, signs, etc.

Ex. — +’s, t’s.

474. Marks of Parenthesis () are used to enclose unrelated or slightly related matter which breaks the flow of thought.

Ex. — The participles (not the participial phrases) are often used as attributive adjectives.

The dash or the comma is frequently substituted for the curves of the parenthesis.

EXERCISES FOR ANALYSIS.

1.

THE FROST.

The frost looked forth one clear, still night,
 And he said, "Now I shall be out of sight;
 So through the valley and over the height
 In silence I'll take my way.

I will not go like that blustering train,
 The wind and the snow, the hail and the rain,
 Who make so much bustle and noise in vain;
 But I'll be as busy as they."

Then he went to the mountain, and powdered its crest;
 He climbed up the trees, and their boughs he dressed
 With diamonds and pearls; and over the breast

 Of the glimmering lake he spread
 A coat of mail, that it need not fear
 The downward point of many a spear
 That he hung on its margin, far and near
 Where a rock would rear its head.

He went to the windows of those who slept,
 And over each pane like a fairy crept;
 Wherever he breathed, wherever he stepped,

 By the light of the moon were seen
 Most beautiful things. There were flowers and trees,
 There were beves of birds and swarms of bees,
 There were cities, thrones, temples, and towers, and these
 All pictured in silver sheen.

But he did one thing that was hardly fair, —
 He peeped in the cupboard, and, finding there
 That all had forgotten for him to prepare, —

 " Now, just to set them a-thinking,
 I'll bite this basket of fruit," said he;
 " This costly pitcher I'll burst in three,
 And the glass of water they've left for me
 Shall ' tchick!' to tell them I'm drinking."

HANNAH FRANCES GOULD.

2.

THE CHOICE OF KING MIDAS.

King Midas, prince of Phrygia, several thousand years ago,
Was a very worthy monarch, as the classic annals show;

Now, this notable old monarch, King of Phrygia, as aforesaid
(Of whose royal state and character there might be vastly more said),
Though he occupied a palace, kept a very open door,
And had still a ready welcome for the stranger and the poor.
Now, it chanced that old Silenus, who, it seems, had lost his way,
Following Bacchus through the forest, in the pleasant month of May
(Which wasn't very singular, for at the present day
The followers of Bacchus very often go astray),
Came at last to good King Midas, who received him in his court,
Gave him comfortable lodgings, and — to cut the matter short —
With as much consideration treated weary old Silenus,
As if the entertainment were for Mercury or Venus.

Now, when Bacchus heard the story, he proceeded to the king;
And said he: "By old Silenus you have done the handsome thing;
He's my much respected tutor, who has taught me how to read,
And I'm sure your royal kindness should receive its proper meed;
So I grant you full permission to select your own reward,—
Choose a gift to suit your fancy, — something worthy of a lord!"
"Gracious Bacchus!" cried the monarch, "if I do not make too bold,
Let whatever I may handle be transmuted into gold!"
Midas, sitting down to dinner, sees the answer to his wish,
For the turbot on the platter turns into a golden fish!
And the bread between his fingers is no longer wheaten bread,
But the slice he tries to swallow is a wedge of gold instead!
And the roast he takes for mutton fills his mouth with golden meat,
Very tempting to the vision, but extremely hard to eat;
And the liquor in his goblet, very rare, select, and old,
Down the monarch's thirsty throttle runs a stream of liquid gold.
Quite disgusted with his dining, he betakes him to his bed;
But, alas! the golden pillow doesn't rest his weary head!
Nor does all the gold around him soothe the monarch's tender skin;
Golden sheets to sleepy mortals might as well be sheets of tin!

Now poor Midas, straight repenting of his rash and foolish choice,
Went to Bacchus, and assured him, in a very plaintive voice,

That his golden gift was working in a manner most unpleasant, —
And the god; in sheer compassion, took away the fatal present.

MORAL.

By this mythologic story we are very plainly told,
That though gold may have its uses, there are better things than
gold;

That a man may sell his freedom to procure the shining pelf;
And that Avarice, though it prosper, still contrives to cheat itself!

JOHN GODFREY SAXE.

3.

THE BOBOLINK.

1. The happiest bird of our spring, and one that rivals the European lark in our estimation, is the bob-o-lincoln, or bobolink as he is commonly called. He arrives when Nature is in all her freshness and fragrance, — “the rains are over and gone, the flowers appear on the earth, the time of the singing of birds is come, and the voice of the turtle is heard in the land.”

2. The trees are now in their fullest foliage and brightest verdure; the woods are gay with the clustered flowers of the laurel; the air is perfumed by the sweetbrier and wild rose; the meadow is enamelled with clover-blossoms; while the young apple, the peach, and the plum begin to swell, and the cherry to glow, among the green leaves.

3. This is the chosen season of revelry of the bobolink. He comes amidst the pomp and fragrance of the season; his life seems all sensibility and enjoyment, all song and sunshine. He is to be found in the soft bosoms of the freshest and sweetest meadows; and is most in song when the clover is in blossom.

4. He perches on the topmost twig of a tree, or on some long flaunting weed, and, as he rises and sinks with the breeze, pours forth a succession of rich, tinkling notes, crowding one upon another like the outpouring melody of the skylark, and possessing the same rapturous character.

5. Sometimes he pitches from the summit of a tree, begins his song as he gets upon the wing, and flutters tremulously down to the earth, as if overcome with ecstasy at his own music. Sometimes he is in pursuit of his mate; always in full song, as if he would

win her by his melody, and always with the same appearance of intoxication and delight.

6. Of all the birds of our groves and meadows, the bobolink was the envy of my boyhood. He crossed my path in the sweetest weather, and the sweetest season of the year, when all nature called to the fields, and the rural feelings throbbed in every bosom.

7. Had I been then more versed in poetry, I might have addressed him in the words of Logan to the cuckoo:—

“ Sweet bird ! thy bower is ever green, thy sky is ever clear,
Thou hast no sorrow in thy note, no winter in thy year.
Oh, could I fly, I'd fly with thee ; we'd make, on joyful wing,
Our annual visit round the globe, companions of the spring ! ”

8. Further observation and experience have given me a different idea of this little feathered voluptuary, which I will venture to impart for the benefit of schoolboy readers who may regard him with the same unqualified envy and admiration which I once indulged.

9. I have shown him only as I saw him at first, in what I may call the poetical part of his career, when he in a manner devoted himself to elegant pursuits and enjoyments, and was a bird of music and song and taste and sensibility and refinement.

10. While this lasted he was sacred from injury ; the very schoolboy would not fling a stone at him, and the merest rustic would pause to listen to his strain. But mark the difference.

11. As the year advances, as the clover-blossoms disappear, and the spring fades away into summer, he gradually gives up his elegant tastes and habits, doffs his poetical suit of black, assumes a russet, dusty garb, and sinks to the gross enjoyments of common vulgar birds.

12. His notes no longer vibrate on the ear ; he is stuffing himself with the seeds of the tall weeds on which he lately swung and chanted so melodiously. He has become a gormand. With him now there is nothing like the “ joys of the table.”

13. In a little while he grows tired of plain, homely fare, and is off on a gastronomical tour in quest of foreign luxuries. We next hear of him with myriads of his kind, banqueting among the reeds of the Delaware, and grown corpulent with good feeding.

14. He has changed his name in travelling. Bob-o-lincoln no more, he is the reed-bird now, the much-sought tidbit of Pennsylvania epicures, the rival in unlucky fame of the ortolan ! Wherever he goes, pop ! pop ! pop ! every rusty firelock in the country is

blazing away. He sees his companions falling by thousands and tens of thousands around him.

15. Does he take warning and reform? Alas, not he! Incorrigible epicure! again he wings his flight. The rice-swamps of the South invite him. He gorges himself among them almost to bursting; he can scarcely fly for corpulency. He has once more changed his name, and is now the famous rice-bird of the Carolinas.

16. Last stage of his career, — behold him spitted with dozens of his corpulent companions, and served up, a vaunted dish, on the table of some Southern epicure.

17. Such is the story of the bobolink, — once spiritual, musical, admired, the joy of the meadows, and the favorite bird of spring; finally, a gross little sensualist who expiates his sensuality in the kitchen.

18. His story contains a moral worthy the attention of all little birds and little boys; warning them to keep to those refined and intellectual pursuits which raised him to so high a degree of popularity during the early part of his career, but to eschew all tendency to that gross and dissipated indulgence which brought this mistaken little bird to an untimely end.

W. IRVING.

4.

DEATH OF LITTLE PAUL.

1. Paul had never risen from his little bed. He lay there, listening to the noises in the street, quite tranquilly; not caring much how time went, but watching it and watching everything about him with observing eyes.

2. When the sunbeams struck into his room through the rustling blinds, and quivered on the opposite wall like golden water, he knew that evening was coming on, and that the sky was red and beautiful. As the reflection died away, and a gloom went creeping up the wall, he watched it deepen, deepen into night. Then he thought how the long streets were dotted with lamps, and how the peaceful stars were shining overhead.

3. His fancy had a strange tendency to wander to the river, which he knew was flowing through the great city; and now he thought how black it was, and how deep it would look, reflecting the host of stars, — and more than all, how steadily it rolled away to meet the sea.

4. As it grew later in the night, and footsteps in the street became so rare that he could hear them coming, count them as they passed, and lose them in the hollow distance, he would lie and watch the many-colored rings about the candle, and wait patiently for the day. His only trouble was the swift and rapid river. He felt forced, sometimes, to try to stop it, — to stem it with his childish hands, or choke its way with sand ; and when he saw it coming on, resistless, he cried out ! But a word from Florence, who was always at his side, restored him to himself ; and, leaning his poor head upon her breast, he told Floy of his dream, and smiled.

5. When day began to dawn again, he watched for the sun ; and when its cheerful light began to sparkle in the room, he pictured to himself — pictured ! he saw — the high church-towers up in the morning sky, the town reviving, waking, starting into life once more, the river glistening as it rolled (but rolling fast as ever), and the country bright with dew.

6. Familiar sounds and cries came by degrees into the street below ; the servants in the house were roused and busy ; faces looked in at the door, and voices asked his attendants softly how he was. Paul always answered, for himself, "I am better. I am a great deal better, thank you ! Tell papa so !"

7. By little and little, he got tired of the bustle of the day, the noise of carriages and carts, and people passing and repassing ; and would fall asleep, or be troubled with a restless and uneasy sense again — the child could hardly tell whether this were in his sleeping or his waking moments — of that rushing river. "Why, will it never stop, Floy ?" he would sometimes ask her. "It is bearing me away, I think !"

8. But Floy could always soothe and reassure him ; and it was his daily delight to make her lay her head down on his pillow and take some rest.

9. "Now I lay me down," he said ; "and, Floy, come close to me and let me see you !"

10. Sister and brother wound their arms around each other, and the golden light came streaming in, and fell upon them, locked together.

11. "How fast the river runs between its banks and the rushes, Floy ! But it's very near the sea. I hear the waves ! They always said so !"

12. Presently he told her that the motion of the boat upon the stream was lulling him to rest. How green the banks were now,

how bright the flowers growing on them, and how tall the rushes ! Now the boat was out at sea, but gliding smoothly on. And now there was a shore before him. Who stood on the bank ?—

13. He put his hands together, as he had been used to do at his prayers. He did not remove his arms to do it ; but they saw him fold them so, behind her neck.

14. "Mamma is like you, Floy. I know her by the face ! But tell them that the print upon the stairs at school is not divine enough. The light about the head is shining on me as I go."

15. The golden ripple on the wall came back again, and nothing else stirred in the room. The old, old fashion ! The fashion that came in with our first parents, and will last unchanged until our race has run its course, and the wide firmament is rolled up like a scroll. The old, old fashion, — Death !

16. Ay, thank God, all who see it, for that older fashion yet, of Immortality ! And look upon us, angels of young children, with regards not quite estranged, when the swift river bears us to the ocean !

CHARLES DICKENS.

5.

AN APPEAL TO ARMS.

1. *Mr. President* : It is natural for man to indulge in the illusions of hope. We are apt to shut our eyes against a painful truth, and listen to the song of that siren till she transforms us into beasts. Is this the part of wise men, engaged in a great and arduous struggle for liberty ?

2. Are we disposed to be of the number of those who, having eyes, see not, and having ears, hear not, the things which so nearly concern their temporal salvation ? For my part, whatever anguish of spirit it may cost, I am willing to know the whole truth ; to know the worst, and to provide for it.

3. I have but one lamp by which my feet are guided, and that is the lamp of experience. I know of no way of judging the future but by the past. And, judging by the past, I wish to know what there has been in the conduct of the British ministry for the last ten years, to justify those hopes with which gentlemen have been pleased to solace themselves and the House ?

4. Is it that insidious smile with which our petition has been lately received ? Trust it not, sir ; it will prove a snare to your

feet. Suffer not yourselves to be betrayed with a kiss. Ask yourselves how this gracious reception of our petition comports with those warlike preparations which cover our waters and darken our land.

5. Are fleets and armies necessary to a work of love and reconciliation? Have we shown ourselves so unwilling to be reconciled, that force must be called in to win back our love? Let us not deceive ourselves, sir. These are the implements of war and subjugation, — the last arguments to which kings resort.

6. I ask, sir, what means this martial array, if its purpose be not to force us to submission? Can gentlemen assign any other possible motive for it? Has Great Britain any enemy in this quarter of the world, to call for all this accumulation of navies and armies? No, sir, she has none. They are meant for us; they can be meant for no other.

7. They are sent over to bind and rivet upon us those chains which the British ministry have been so long forging. And what have we to oppose to them? Shall we try argument? Sir, we have been trying that for the last ten years. Have we anything new to offer upon the subject? Nothing. We have held the subject up in every light of which it is capable; but it has been all in vain.

8. Shall we resort to entreaty and humble supplication? What terms shall we find, which have not been already exhausted? Let us not, I beseech you, sir, deceive ourselves longer. Sir, we have done everything that could be done, to avert the storm which is now coming on. We have petitioned, we have remonstrated, we have supplicated; we have prostrated ourselves before the throne, and have implored its interposition to arrest the tyrannical hands of the ministry and Parliament.

9. Our petitions have been slighted; our remonstrances have produced additional violence and insult; our supplications have been disregarded; and we have been spurned, with contempt, from the foot of the throne. In vain, after these things, may we indulge the fond hope of peace and reconciliation. There is no longer any room for hope.

10. If we wish to be free; if we mean to preserve inviolate those inestimable privileges for which we have been so long contending; if we mean not basely to abandon the noble struggle in which we have been so long engaged, and which we have pledged ourselves never to abandon until the glorious object of our contest shall be

obtained,—we must fight!—I repeat it, sir, we must fight! An appeal to arms, and to the God of hosts, is all that is left us.

11. They tell us, sir, that we are weak, — unable to cope with so formidable an adversary. But when shall we be stronger? Will it be the next week, or the next year? Will it be when we are totally disarmed, and when a British guard shall be stationed in every house?

12. Shall we gather strength by irresolution and inaction? Shall we acquire the means of effectual resistance by lying supinely on our backs, and hugging the delusive phantom of hope, until our enemies shall have bound us hand and foot?

13. Sir, we are not weak, if we make a proper use of those means which the God of nature hath placed in our power. Three millions of people, armed in the holy cause of Liberty, and in such a country as that which we possess, are invincible by any force which our enemy can send against us.

14. Besides, sir, we shall not fight our battles alone. There is a just God who presides over the destinies of nations, and who will raise up friends to fight our battles for us. The battle, sir, is not to the strong alone; it is to the vigilant, the active, the brave. Besides, sir, we have no election. If we were base enough to desire it, it is now too late to retire from the contest.

15. There is no retreat, but in submission and slavery! Our chains are forged. Their clanking may be heard on the plains of Boston! The war is inevitable,—and let it come!—I repeat it, sir, let it come! It is vain, sir, to extenuate the matter. Gentlemen may cry, Peace, peace! but there is no peace. The war is actually begun.

16. The next gale that sweeps from the north will bring to our ears the clash of resounding arms! Our brethren are already in the field! Why stand we here idle? What is it the gentlemen wish? What would they have? Is life so dear, or peace so sweet, as to be purchased at the price of chains and slavery? Forbid it, Almighty God. I know not what course others may take; but as for me, give me liberty, or give me death!

PATRICK HENRY.

6.

OF STUDIES.

Studies serve for delight, for ornament, and for ability. Their chief use for delight is in privateness and retiring; for ornament, is

in discourse ; and for ability, is in the judgment and disposition of business : for expert men can execute, and perhaps judge of particulars, one by one ; but the general counsels, and the plots and marshalling of affairs, come best from those that are learned. To spend too much time in studies, is sloth ; to use them too much for ornament, is affectation ; to make judgment wholly by their rules, is the humour of a scholar ; they perfect nature, and are perfected by experience : for natural abilities are like natural plants, that need pruning by study ; and studies themselves do give forth directions too much at large, except they be bounded in by experience. Crafty men contemn studies, simple men admire them, and wise men use them ; for they teach not their own use ; but that is a wisdom without them and above them, won by observation. Read, not to contradict and confute, nor to believe and take for granted, nor to find talk and discourse, but to weigh and consider. Some books are to be tasted, others to be swallowed, and some few to be chewed and digested ; that is, some books are to be read only in parts ; others to be read, but not curiously ; and some few to be read wholly, and with diligence and attention. Some books also may be read by deputy, and extracts made of them by others ; but that would be only in the less important arguments, and the meaner sort of books ; else distilled books are, like common distilled waters, flashy things. Reading maketh a full man, conference a ready man, and writing an exact man ; and therefore, if a man write little, he had need have a great memory ; if he confer little, he had need have a present wit ; and if he read little, he had need have much cunning, to seem to know that he doth not. Histories make men wise ; poets, witty ; the mathematics, subtile ; natural philosophy, deep ; moral, grave ; logic and rhetoric, able to contend : nay, there is no stand or impediment in the wit, but may be wrought out by fit studies : like as diseases of the body may have appropriate exercises, — bowling is good for the stone and reins, shooting for the lungs and breast, gentle walking for the stomach, riding for the head and the like ; — so, if a man's wit be wandering, let him study the mathematics, for in demonstrations, if his wit be called away never so little, he must begin again ; if his wit be not apt to distinguish or find differences, let him study the schoolmen, for they are CYMINI SECTORES ; if he be not apt to beat over matters, and to call up one thing to prove and illustrate another, let him study the lawyer's cases : so every defect of the mind may have a special receipt.

FRANCIS BACON.

7.

SELECTIONS FROM HAMLET.

HAMLET. To be, or not to be : that is the question :
 Whether 'tis nobler in the mind to suffer
 The slings and arrows of outrageous fortune,
 Or to take arms against a sea of troubles,
 And, by opposing, end them ? To die : to sleep ;
 No more ; and by a sleep to say we end
 The heart-ache and the thousand natural shocks
 That flesh is heir to, 'tis a consummation
 Devoutly to be wish'd. To die, to sleep ;
 To sleep : perchance to dream : ay, there's the rub ;
 For in that sleep of death what dreams may come
 When we have shuffled off this mortal coil,
 Must give us pause : there's the respect
 That makes calamity of so long life ;
 For who would bear the whips and scorns of time,
 The oppressor's wrong, the proud man's contumely,
 The pangs of despised love, the law's delay,
 The insolence of office, and the spurns
 That patient merit of the unworthy takes,
 When he himself might his quietus make
 With a bare bodkin ? Who would fardels bear,
 To grunt and sweat under a weary life,
 But that the dread of something after death,
 The undiscover'd country from whose bourn
 No traveller returns, puzzles the will,
 And makes us rather bear those ills we have
 Than fly to others that we know not of ?
 Thus conscience does make cowards of us all ;
 And thus the native hue of resolution
 Is sicklied o'er with the pale cast of thought,
 And enterprises of great pith and moment
 With this regard their currents turn awry,
 And lose the name of action. — Soft you now !
 The fair Ophelia ! Nymph, in thy orisons
 Be all my sins remember'd.

HAMLET. O, that this too too solid flesh would melt,
 Thaw, and resolve itself into a dew !

Or that the Everlasting had not fix'd
 His canon 'gainst self-slaughter ! O God ! God !
 How weary, stale, flat, and unprofitable,
 Seem to me all the uses of this world !
 Fie on't ! ah fie ! 'tis an unweeded garden,
 That grows to seed ; things rank and gross in nature
 Possess it merely. That it should come to this !
 But two months dead ; nay, not so much, not two.
 So excellent a king ; that was, to this,
 Hyperion to a satyr ; so loving to my mother
 That he might not beteem the winds of heaven
 Visit her face too roughly. Heaven and earth !
 Must I remember ? Why, she would hang on him,
 As if increase of appetite had grown
 By what it fed on : and yet, within a month —
 Let me not think on't — Frailty, thy name is woman ! —
 A little month, or ere those shoes were old
 With which she follow'd my poor father's body,
 Like Niobe, all tears : — why she, even she —
 O God ! a beast, that wants discourse of reason,
 Would have mourn'd longer — married with my uncle,
 My father's brother, but no more like my father
 Than I to Hercules : within a month :
 Ere yet the salt of most unrighteous tears
 Had left the flushing in her galled eyes,
 She married.
 It is not nor it cannot come to good :
 But break, my heart ; for I must hold my tongue.

POLONIUS. Yet here, Laertes ! aboard, aboard, for shame !
 The wind sits in the shoulder of your sail,
 And you are stay'd for. There ; my blessing with thee !
 And these few precepts in thy memory
 See thou character. Give thy thoughts no tongue,
 Nor any unproportion'd thought his act.
 Be thou familiar, but by no means vulgar.
 Those friends thou hast, and their adoption tried,
 Grapple them to thy soul with hoops of steel ;
 But do not dull thy palm with entertainment
 Of each new-hatch'd, unfledged comrade. Beware

Of entrance to a quarrel, but being in,
 Bear't that the opposed may beware of thee.
 Give every man thy ear, but few thy voice;
 Take each man's censure, but reserve thy judgment.
 Costly thy habit as thy purse can buy,
 But not express'd in fancy; rich, not gaudy;
 For the apparel oft proclaims the man,
 And they in France of the best rank and station
 Are of a most select and generous chief in that.
 Neither a borrower nor a lender be ;
 For loan oft loses both itself and friend,
 And borrowing dulls the edge of husbandry.
 This above all: to thine own self be true,
 And it must follow, as the night the day,
 Thou canst not then be false to any man.
 Farewell : my blessing season this in thee !

8.

EXTRACT FROM THE VISION OF SIR LAUNFAL.

And what is so rare as a day in June ?
 Then, if ever, come perfect days ;
 Then Heaven tries the earth if it be in tune,
 And over it softly her warm ear lays.
 Whether we look, or whether we listen,
 We hear life murmur, or see it glisten ;
 Every clod feels a stir of might,
 An instinct within it that reaches and towers,
 And, groping blindly above it for light,
 Climbs to a soul in grass and flowers.
 The flush of life may well be seen
 Thrilling back over hills and valleys ;
 The cowslip startles in meadows green,
 The buttercup catches the sun in its chalice,
 And there's never a leaf nor a blade too mean
 To be some happy creature's palace.
 The little bird sits at his door in the sun,
 Atilt, like a blossom among the leaves,
 And lets his illumined being o'errun
 With the deluge of summer it receives ;

His mate feels the eggs beneath her wings,
And the heart in her dumb breast flutters and sings.
He sings to the wide world and she to her nest, —
In the nice ear of Nature which song is the best ?

Now is the high tide of the year ;
And whatever of life hath ebbd away
Comes flooding back with a ripply cheer,
Into every bare inlet and creek and bay.
Now the heart is so full that a drop over-fills it,
We are happy now because God wills it ;
No matter how barren the past may have been,
'Tis enough for us now that the leaves are green ;
We sit in the warm shade, and feel right well
How the sap creeps up and the blossoms swell ;
We may shut our eyes, but we cannot help knowing
That skies are clear and grass is growing.
The breeze comes whispering in our ear
That dandelions are blossoming near,
That maize has sprouted, that streams are flowing,
That the river is bluer than the sky,
That the robin is plastering his house hard by ;
And if the breeze kept the good news back,
For other couriers we should not lack ;
We could guess it all by yon heifer's lowing, —
And hark ! how clear bold chanticleer,
Warmed with the new wine of the year,
Tells all in his lusty crowing !

Joy comes, grief goes, we know not how ;
Everything is happy now,
Everything is upward striving ;
'Tis as easy now for the heart to be true
As for grass to be green or skies to be blue, —
'Tis the natural way of living.
Who knows whither the clouds have fled ?
In the unscarred heavens they leave no wake ;
And the eyes forget the tears they have shed,
The heart forgets its sorrow and ache ;
The soul partakes the season's youth.

And the sulphurous rifts of passion and woe
Lie deep 'neath a silence, pure and smooth,
Like burnt-out craters healed with snow.
What wonder if Sir Launfal now
Remembered the keeping of his vow ?

LOWELL.

INDEX.

Numbers refer to paragraphs.

Abbreviated clauses, 384.

Abridgment, 414-416, 424, 425.

Absolute construction, 424-428.

Abstract nouns, 89.

Active synopsis of the verb, 316.

Additional clauses, 445.

Address, noun independent in, 126.

Adjectives, definition, 34, 192; compared with verbs, 193; inflection, 194; classification, 195; constructions, 228-236; cautions in use of, 237; parsing, 238.

Adjective clauses, 62.

Adjective phrases, 204, 358.

Adverbs, definition, 34, 334; division of labor in, 335; classification, 336-339; inflection, 343; interrogative, 342; adverb phrases, 344; expletive use of *there*, 345; responsives, 346; conjunctive, 347; pronominal, 349; cautions in use of, 350; parsing, 351.

Adverbial clauses, 62, 441; connectives of, 382.

Adverbial construction of nouns, 125.

Adverbial phrases, 358.

Adverbial predicate adjective, 236.

Adversatives, 375.

Alternative interrogatives, 42.

Alternatives, 376.

Analysis, definition, 66; order for, 67 Anglo-Saxon Conquest, 4.

Antecedent, 132.

Appositive use of nouns, 124; of adjectives, 232.

Articles, 216-218.

As used as a relative pronoun, 177.

Attributes, 12, 13.

Attributive use of adjectives, 230.

Auxiliary verbs, inflection of, tense meanings, present meanings, 289-293.

Bare subject, 24.

Bare predicate, 25; composition, 37, 433.

Base of a sentence, 30.

Britons, 3.

But used as a relative pronoun, 177.

Capitals, use of, 461.

Cardinals, 213.

Case, of nouns, 100, 101; of pronouns, 141.

Causal conjunctions, coördinating, 377; subordinating, 383.

Class nouns, 88.

Classification of words, 31-36.

Clauses, 27; independent (proposition), 50; dependent, 56; theory of, 55; classification, 62; connectives of, 63; additional, 445; abbreviated, 384.

Collective nouns, 90.

Common nouns, 87.

Comparison, 197-208; irregular, 207 supplementary phrases, 204; of adverbs, 343.

Complements, 34.

Complete subject and predicate, 28, 29.

Complex sentences, 57; significance of name, 58; logical analysis, 59; connectives of, 63.

Complex-compound sentences, 61.

Composition, 72.

Compound personal pronouns, 152.

- Compound conjunctive pronouns, 178-181.
- Compound sentences, 48; parts, 49; relations between parts, 51; connectives of, 53.
- Compound and complex sentences compared, 60.
- Compound tenses, 250.
- Compound words, 80.
- Conditional verb phrases, 308, 309.
- Conjugation, 248; two conjugations, 270; new, 271, 272; old, 273; irregularities of new, 283, 284; of old, 286; alphabetical list of irregular verbs of new, 285; of old, 287; verb *be*, 288.
- Conjunctions, 35, 366; compared with prepositions, 367; classification, 370-373; conjunction phrases, 385; cautions in use of, 389; parsing, 390.
- Conjunctive adverbs, 347, 382; clauses introduced by, 348.
- Conjunctive pronouns, two-fold nature, 165; definition, 166; classification, 167; clauses introduced by relatives, 169; by indefinites, 179.
- Constructions,
nouns, 114-126.
pronouns, personals, 148-150; special uses of *it*, 151; compound personals, 152; demonstratives, 156; interrogatives, 161; relatives, 172; indefinite conjunctives, 184; indefinites, 189.
adjectives, 228-236.
adverbs, 34, 334.
participles, 423-428.
infinitives, 408, 420.
dependent clauses, 62, 440.
phrases, 442.
- Coördinating conjunctions, 371; copulative, 374; adversative, 375; alternative, 376; causal, 377.
- Copulatives, conjunctions, 374; verbs, 243.
- Correlatives, coördinating, 378; subordinating, 386.
- Dative use of nouns, 117.
- Declarative sentences, 41.
- Declension, 113, 139.
- Degrees of comparison, 198-201.
- Demonstrative adjectives, 225.
- Demonstrative pronouns, 153, 154; inflection, 155; constructions, 156; difficulty of recognizing, 157.
- Dependent clauses, theory of, 55; classification, 62; connectives of, 63.
- Derivation, 73; classification of words according to, 74.
- Derivative words, 76.
- Diagram, use and abuse, 450; principles which should determine form of, 451; illustrative diagrams, 452-459.
- Dialects of English, 7.
- Distributives, 187.
- Elements, definition, classification, 27; of equal rank, 369; independent, 443; compound, 444.
- Ellipsis of clauses of comparison, 384.
- Emphatic verb phrases, 297.
- England, early history, 3; Anglo-Saxon conquest, 4; Norman conquest, 5.
- English language, 1; character, 2; early history, 3; later history, 6; dialects of, 7; standard of, 8.
- Exclamation, use of nouns in, 126.
- Exclamatory sentences, 44, 394.
- Expletives, 151, 345.
- Factitive or objective complement, 235.
- Foreign nouns, plurals, 98.
- Fractionals, 213.
- Future tense phrases, 299-301.
- Gender a classification, not a property of nouns, 92.
- Gender nouns, 91; gender of pronouns, 147.
- Gerund, 268; peculiar uses of, 414.
- Grammar, 9; value of, 10.
- Grammatical subject, 151.
- Ideas, nature of, 12; modes of expressing, 15; relation between, 18.
- Idiomatic constructions, 448.

Imperative sentences, 43.
 Imperative verb phrases, 448.
 Impersonal subject of a verb, 151.
 Indefinite conjunctive pronouns, 178, 179; compound in form, 181; used also as adjectives, 182; inflection, 183; constructions, 184; constructions of their clauses, 185.
 Indefinite pronouns, 186; classes, 187; inflection, 188; constructions, 189.
 Indefinite quantitatives, adjectives, 215; pronouns, 187.
 Independent clauses or propositions, 50.
 Indirect object, 117; made the subject, 328.
 Infinitives, 268; meaning of term, 269; omission of sign, 407; structure of phrases, 402; tense signification, 404; constructions of, 408-420; subject of, 410-412; peculiarities of the gerund, 414; parsing, 430.
 Inflection, 68; purpose of, 69; compared with other languages, 70; nouns, 93; pronouns, 139-142; adjectives, 194, 203; verbs, 245-280; adverbs, 343.
 Interjections, 36, 391-392; classification, 393; shade into exclamatory sentences, 394; other parts of speech used as, 395; interrogatives, 396; use of *O*, and *oh*, 397.
 Interrogative adjectives, 226; adverbs, 342; sentences, 42.
 Interrogative pronouns, 153-159; inflection, 160; constructions, 161; position, 162; selective value of which, 163.
 Irregular comparison, 207.
 Irregular verbs, 281-284; alphabetical list, 285, 287; *it*, special uses of, 151.
 Judgment, definition, 11; nature of ideas composing, 12; relation of ideas to, 13; analysis of, 14.
 Limitations in use of pronouns, 176.
 Logical subject, 151.
 Modal adverbs, 338-341.
 Mode, 253-259, 279.

Modifiers, adjective, adverbial, 26; of the subject, 434; of the predicate, 435.
 New conjugation, 270-272.
 Nominative case, of nouns, 102; pronouns, 148.
 Norman Conquest, 5.
 Nouns, 33, 81; difficult to recognize, 82; tests of, 83; classification, 84; proper, 85; common, 87, 88; abstract, 89; collective, 90; gender, 91; inflection, 93; number inflection, 94; extent of, 95; character of, 96; irregularities of, 97; plural of compounds, 99; case, 100; extent of case inflection, 101; case forms, 102, 104; uses of common form, 103; formation of possessive case, 105; character of case inflection, 106; person, 110; summarized facts concerning inflection, 112; declension, 113; constructions, 114-126; substantives, 128; parsing, 129, 130.
 Noun clauses, 62, 179; connectives of, 65.
 Number forms of nouns, 94.
 Numerals, 213; substantive use of, 214.
 Object, direct, 116.
 Object, indirect, 117.
 Objective complement, 118, 235.
 Objective case of nouns, 102; of pronouns, 150.
 Object of preposition, 120, 358.
 Obligative phrases, 311.
 Old conjugation, 273; list of verbs, 287.
 Omission of sign of infinitive, 407.
 Ordinals, 213.
O used in address, 397.
 Parallel Constructions, 446.
 Parsing, 129; nouns, 130; pronouns, 191; adjectives, 238; verb, 332; adverb, 351; preposition, 363; conjunction, 390; infinitives and participles, 430.
 Participial adjectives, 209; forms, 210; importance, 211.
 Participles, 267; meaning of term, 209; phrases, 422; constructions, 423-429; parsing, 430.

- Parts of speech, 31, 32.
- Passive phrases, 317-330; synopsis, 319; regular passives, 320; irregular, 327-330; how to tell a passive phrase, 326; indirect object made the subject, 328; objective complements in the passive, 329; difference between progressive and passive phrases, 324.
- Perfect verb phrases, 302, 303.
- Personal pronouns, 137, 138; declension, 139; properties shown, 140; amount of inflection, 141; character of inflection, 142; uses of gender forms, 147; of the nominative case, 148; of the possessive case, 149; of the objective case, 150; special uses of neuter pronoun, 151; compound personals, 152.
- Person, of nouns, 110; of pronouns, 137, 141; of verbs, 260-264.
- Phrases, 15, 20; as to structure, 442-1; as to use, 442-2; supplementary to inflection of nouns, 359; of adjectives, 204; of verbs, 294.
- Plural of nouns, 96; irregular, 97; foreign, 98; uninflected for, 98; compounds, 99.
- Possessive case, formation of, 104, 105; joint ownership, 107; separate ownership, 108; compounds, 109; construction, 123.
- Potential verb phrases, 310.
- Predicate, bare, 25; complete, 29.
- Prepositions, 352; origin of, 353; compared with adverbs, 354; meanings of, 356; prepositional phrases, 358-359; preposition phrases, 360; prepositional complements, 361; the proper use of, 363; parsing, 365.
- Primitive words, 75.
- Principal parts of verbs, 275.
- Progressive verb phrases, 296.
- Pronominal adjectives, 223; classes, 224.
- Pronouns, 33, 132; inflection, 134; constructions, 135; classes, 136; cautions in use of, 190; parsing, 191.
- Proper nouns, 85.
- Properties of a word, 71.
- Propositions or independent clauses, 50; as to rank, 439.
- Punctuation, 463-474.
- Qualitative adjectives, 196; inflection, 197-208.
- Quantitative adjectives, classes, 212; numerals, 213; substantive use of, 214; indefinites, 215; articles, 216-218.
- Reciprocals, 187.
- Reflexive use of pronouns, 152.
- Relations of ideas, 18; how shown, 19.
- Relative or pronominal adverbs, 349.
- Relative pronouns, 168; found in complex sentences, 169; inflection, 171; constructions, 172; agreement, 173; position, 174; limitations in use of, 176; *as* and *but* as relatives, 177.
- Responsives, 346.
- Root infinitives, 268.
- Sentences, 21; essential elements, 22; number of parts, 23; base, 30; modal classification, 40; declarative, 41; interrogative, 42; imperative, 43; exclusion of exclamatory sentences, 44; structural classification, 45, 46; simple, 47; compound, 48; complex, 57; complex-compound, 61; modifiers of subject, 434; of predicate, 435.
- Sequence of tenses, 449.
- Simple sentences, 47.
- Subject, bare, 24; complete, 28; composition, 432.
- Subordinating conjunctions, 380; two-fold value, 64; classification, 382; distinction between *for* and *because*, 383.
- Subordinate clauses, 56; uses, 62; words introducing, 63.
- Subordinate elements, 27.
- Substantives, 127.
- Substantive clauses, 62: connectives of, 65.
- Substantive conjunctions, 382.
- Suffix, 79.
- Synopsis, 316.

Tense, 250-252; sequence of, 449; in English and in other languages, 250.

There, expletive use, 345.

Transitive verbs, 37, 243; object of, 116.

Uses, see *Constructions*.

Varied use of words, 447.

Verbs, 34, 239; classification according to extent of meaning, 37, 240-243; complements, 39; classification according to conjugation, 270; new, 271; old, 273; principal parts, 275; inflection, 245-269; amount of inflection, 249; name of inflection, 248; tense, 250-252; mode, 253-259; number and person, 260-264; verbals, 265-269; inflected forms, 276; summary of facts regarding inflection, 280; regular and irregular, 281; irregularities of the new conjugation, 283; of the old, 286, 287;

auxiliary, 289-293; phrases, 294-326; synopsis, 316; parsing, 332.

Verb phrases, 294, 326; definition, 295; progressive, 296; emphatic, 297; future, 299-301; perfect, 302-307; conditional, 308-309; potential, 310; obligative, 311; conditional, potential, and obligative-perfect, 312; infinitive and participial phrases, 313-316; passive, 317-330; passive synopsis, 319; irregular or idiomatic phrases, 331; parsing, 333.

Verbals, 265-269; classification according to meaning, 405; modifiers, 406; constructions, 408-414; 423-425.

Verbal adjectives, 209-210.

Verbal nouns, 89.

Voice, no inflection for, 318.

Words, definition, 15, 16; logical classification, 17; grammatical classification, 31; substantive, 33; attributive, 34; relation words, 35.



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